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M,DCCC,XVII.

With an APPENDIX.

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>
> ROCHEFOUCAULT.

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Page 104. l. 10. for ' 6s. Boards,' read 2s. 6d. *bound.*
165. l. 19. for ' Cure,' read *Case.*
176. After this page, the numeration of pages is wrong throughout sheet N., beginning with 173 instead of 177 : but it is rectified in sheet O., p. 193.
241. l. 3. for ' mamel,' read *enamel.*
257. lines 8. and 2. from bottom, for ' Tremotite,' read *Tremolite.*
384. l. 10. from bottom, for ' Austice,' read *Anstice.*

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For MAY, 1817.

Art. I. *An Account of the Kingdom of Caubul,* and its Dependencies in Persia, Tartary, and India; comprising a View of the Afghaun Nation, and a History of the Dooraunee Monarchy. By the Hon. Mountstuart Elphinstone, of the Honourable East-India Company's Service; Resident at the Court of Poona; and late Envoy to the King of Caubul. 4to. pp. 675. with a large Map, and 14 coloured Plates. 3l. 13s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

It appears that an opinion was entertained by the British government at Calcutta in 1808, which principally resulted from the embassy of the French General Gardanne to Persia, that Bonaparte had views of penetrating by land to Hindostan, and of thus attempting the conquest of that wealthy and important portion of our oriental dominions. It was therefore deemed necessary to sound the dispositions, and to conciliate the co-operation, of those ruling princes of the East, through whose territories the troops of the modern Alexander were to march. Among these independent sovereignties, the court of Caubul held a high rank; and, as its known character was haughty, and it was suspected of rather undervaluing the European nations, our government determined that a mission to it should be fitted out in a style of importance and splendor. At Delly were made the principal preparations for its equipment; and thence began the escorted procession, more resembling a triumphal solemnity than a journey of negotiation or discovery. Mr. Elphinstone was placed at the head of it, in the character of envoy to the King of Caubul; and in this very handsome volume he furnishes an interesting narrative of his progress and observations.

The embassy left Delly on the 13th of October 1808; passed through Canound, which is a hundred miles westward; and quitted the British dominions on the 21st, in the Shekahwuttee district, where the desert begins. At Chooroo, the women who had accompanied the mission were sent back, with a guard. Six hundred camels were laden with leathern bags of water, and the travellers with their thirteen elephants entered the dry country: but copper-vessels, two of which formed a load for a camel, were found to answer better than the *mushks* or bags of sheep-skin or ox-hides, which cracked and spilled much water. Such was the dread of the desert entertained by the people of the country, that servants of all descriptions absconded by twenties and thirties, until the march was so far advanced that the return became as difficult as the progress.

Bikaneer was the first striking object. This town, which is surrounded by a fine wall, strengthened with round towers, and crowned with jagged battlements, stands in the midst of a plain of more than ordinary nakedness. Some high houses, some temples, (one of which had a lofty spire,) and at one corner an eminent and showy fort, give to this city an imposing exterior; but its beauty is merely external, and mud-walls, painted red or white, constituted the mass of building. Five armies had at this time invaded the country; many persons were come to the metropolis for refuge, which in consequence was unusually populous; and the Rajah had ordered all the wells within ten miles to be covered over with sand, or filled up, trusting for his defence to the desolation which surrounded him. In these circumstances, it was not easy to supply the wants of our envoy: but, after a halt of eleven days, he contrived to proceed on the 16th of November.

At Pooggul, where rain-water could be purchased, the party arrived on the nineteenth instant, at dark; and, on the twenty-first of the same month, they reached the confines or frontier of the King of Caubul's dominions. Here they were met by one hundred and fifty soldiers on camels, belonging to Bahawul Khaun, the governor of this eastern province: escorting a present of four hundred skins of water laden on a hundred camels, with four brazen jars of water from the Hyphasis, sealed with the King's signet, and intended for the private drinking of the ambassador and his particular friends. At each successive stage on the road to Moujghur, fresh presents of water brought from that city announced the attention and hospitality of the sovereign. The embassy arrived at the city itself on the night of the twenty-second. A conspicuous mosque stands over the gate-way; and a tomb, of which the cupola is ornamented with painted tiles, also attracts distant notice. The Persian language and manners here prevail above those of the Hindoos. — After a stay of two days, the caravan of embassy proceeded, and in the desert, on the twenty-fifth, witnessed the singular phænomenon of 'a most magnificent mirage, which looked like an extensive lake, or a very wide river. The water seemed clear and beautiful, and the figures of two gentlemen, who rode along it, were reflected as distinctly as in real water.' It is common in our own country for ground-mists to assume the appearance of water, to make a meadow seem inundated, and to change a valley into a lake: but these mists never reflect the surrounding trees and hills. Hence the mirage, or, as the Persians call it, the water of the desert, the *suhrab*, (from *suhr* desert and *ab* water,) must consist of a peculiar gas, of which the particles are combined by a stronger attraction of cohesion than the vapours of real water; the *liquor silicum* of the alchemists is described as exhibiting in some circumstances this apparently glassy surface, yet as being equally evanescent. The Afghauns personify the vapor in question by the name Ghoollee Beeabaun. On the 26th of November, the caravan reached the banks of the Gharra, which includes the Hyphasis, or Begah, and the Hysudrus, or Sutledge; and the Europeans gazed with interest on a stream which had borne the fleet of Alexander.

At Bahawulpoor, the governor, Bahawul Khaun, preceded by noble presents, came to pay his respects to the mission, to whose convenient progress he gave every facility of information and active service. Polite, frank, intelligent, independent, and generous, a gentleman of nature's making, this officer would have done honour to the best European society; and affords a proof that native virtues spring up every where. Bahawulpoor is four miles in circumference, but includes gardens of mangoe-trees; the houses are of unburnt brick, with terraces of mud; and the city-wall is also of mud, and thin. The soil of the surrounding district is a slime deposited by the river, and very fertile.

December 11. the mission reached Moultaun, which stands about four miles from the left bank of the Chenaub, or Acesines. It occupies nearly five miles in circumference, and is encompassed by a fine wall above forty feet high, with towers at regular distances, and a citadel on a rising ground. These oriental towns have generally that character of fortification which preceded in Europe the use of artillery in sieges. Two magnificent tombs, with very high cupolas covered with glazed and painted tiles, form conspicuous ornaments of the city, viewed from whatever direction. The country around is fertile, well cultivated, and amply watered from wells.

The embassy lingered during many days in the neighbourhood of Moultaun, amused with shooting, hunting, and hawking, but not negligent of statistical observations; indeed, it was necessary to wait thus long for the arrival of a Mehmandaur, or official welcomer, from the King of Caubul. On the 21st of December, the Acesines was crossed; and on the 7th of January, the Indus. At Dera Ismael Khaun, a delay of a month occurred: the ambassador still awaiting a Mehmandaur. This town is situated in a large wood of date-trees, within a hundred yards of the Indus, and has a ruinous wall of unburnt bricks, a mile and half in circumference. At length, about the end of January, the long-expected welcomer arrived, Moolla Jaffer Seestaunee, who had originally been a schoolmaster, but who, by literary talent and financial dexterity, was become a sort of Chancellor of the Exchequer at Peshawer. Under his guidance, the mission left Dera Ismael Khaun, February 7., and proceeded to ascend the right bank of the Indus towards the metropolis. In the progress of the journey, it appeared that the road had in many places been widened and repaired for the express accommodation of the embassy, and hence arose the delay of reception. At Calla-baugh, where the Indus breaks through the Salt-range in a channel only three hundred and fifty yards broad, the road quits the plain country, and climbs rapidly among successive stages of mountains into an Alpine climate. The description of this pass is striking:

'Calla-baugh, where we left the plain, well deserves a minute description. The Indus is here compressed by mountains into a deep channel, only three hundred and fifty yards broad. The mountains on each side have an abrupt descent into the river, and a road is cut along their base, for upwards of two miles. It had been widened for us, but was still so narrow, and the rock over it so steep, that no camel with a bulky load could pass: to obviate this inconvenience, twenty-eight boats had been prepared, to convey our largest packages up the river. The first part of this pass is actually overhung by the town of Calla-baugh, which is built in a singular manner upon the face of the hill, every street rising above its neighbour, and, I imagine, only accessible by means of the flat roofs of the houses below it. As we passed beneath, we perceived windows and balconies at a great height, crowded with women and children. The road beyond was cut out of solid salt, at the foot of cliffs of that mineral, in some places more than one hundred feet high above the river. The salt is hard, clear, and almost pure. It would be like chrystal, were it not in some parts streaked and tinged with red. In some places, salt springs issue from the foot of the rocks, and leave the ground covered with a crust of the most brilliant whiteness. All the earth, particularly near the town, is almost blood red, and this, with the strange and beautiful spectacle of the salt rocks, and the Indus flowing in a deep and clear stream through lofty mountains, past this extraordinary town, presented such a scene of wonders, as is seldom to be witnessed. Our camp was pitched beyond the pass, in the mouth of a narrow valley, and in the dry bed of a torrent. Near it were piles of salt in large blocks (like stones at a quarry), lying ready for exportation, either to India or Khoraussaun. It would have taken a week to satisfy us with the sight of Calla-baugh; but it threatened rain, and had the torrent filled while we were there, our whole camp must have been swept into the Indus.'

At Cohaut, the gardens abounded with those English plants which are strangers to the climate of Hindostan. At Budabeer, about six miles from the metropolis, the mission made a farther halt to arrange several ceremonies of introduction, and, after a more than Spanish definition of etiquette, permitted itself to arrive.

'On the morning of the 25th Feb., after some confusion about the mode of our reception, we made our entry into Peshawer. There was a great crowd all the way. The banks on each side of the road were covered with people, and many climbed up trees to see us pass. The crowd increased as we approached the city, but we were put to no inconvenience by it, as the King's horse, that had come out to meet us, charged the mob vigorously, and used their whips without the least compunction. One man attracted particular notice: he wore a high red cap, of a conical shape, with some folds of cloth round the bottom, and a white plume; he had a short jacket of skin, black pantaloons, and brown boots: he was an uncommonly fine figure, tall, and thin, with swelling muscles, a high nose, and animated countenance: he was mounted on a very fine grey horse, and rode with long stirrups, and very well. He carried a long spear, without a head, with which he charged the mob at speed, shouting with a loud and deep voice. He not only dispersed the mob, but rode at grave people sitting on terraces with the greatest fury, and kept all clear wherever he went. His name was Russool Dewauneh, or Russool the Mad. He was well known for a good and brave soldier; but an irregular and unsettled person. He afterwards was in great favour with most of the mission; and was equipped in an English helmet, and cavalry uniform, which well became him. By the time we had entered the town, the roads were so narrow that our progress became very slow, and we had time to hear the remarks of the spectators, which were expressive of wonder at the procession, and of good will towards us; but the crowd and bustle was too great to admit of any distinct observations. At length we reached the house prepared for us, and were ushered into an apartment spread with carpets and felts for sitting on. Here we were seated on the ground in the Persian manner, and trays of sweetmeats were placed before us. They consisted of sugared almonds, and there was a loaf of sugar for making sherbet in the midst of each tray. Soon after, our conductors observed that we required rest, and withdrew.'—

'On the day of our arrival, our dinner was composed of the dishes sent us by the King, which we found excellent. Afterwards we had always our English meals; but the King continued to send breakfast, luncheon, and dinner for ourselves, with provisions for two thousand persons (a number exceeding that of the embassy), and two hundred horses, besides elephants, &c.; nor was it without great difficulty that I prevailed on his Majesty, at the end of a month, to dispense with this expensive proof of his hospitality.'—

'The first week after our arrival past without our being introduced to the King, in consequence of a dispute about the forms of our presentation. The common forms of the court, though the ministers alleged that they had been conformed to by ambassadors from Persia, and Uzbek Tartary, and even by the brother of the latter Monarch, appeared to us a little unreasonable. The ambassador to be introduced is brought into a court by two officers, who hold him firmly by the arms. On coming in sight of the King, who appears at a high window, the ambassador is made to run forward for a certain distance, when he stops for a moment, and prays for the King. He is then made to run forward again, and prays once more; and, after another run, the King calls out "Khellut," (a dress,) which is followed by the Turkish word "Getsheen," (begone,) from an officer of state, and the unfortunate ambassador is made to run out of the court, and sees no more of the King, unless he is summoned to a private audience in his Majesty's closet.'

These humiliating forms, however, were not observed on the introduction of Mr. Elphinstone, who was received in the most gracious manner. Among the presents offered by him, it is noted that pistols and silk stockings appeared to be the most welcome articles. How rapidly such things would be scattered over the East, if our merchants were allowed to trade at their own discretion with Hindostan, as with North America! Is empire in our hands to be but an impediment to commerce? The chartered monopoly persists in a routine plainly unfavourable to the change of fashions in Asia, which the competitory spirit of private adventure would long ago have more extensively effected. Surely some part of the British territory in the East, not originally comprehended in the Company's grant, might be expediently set free for the voluntary experimental colonization of private merchants. Wherever a convenient sea-port were opened to indiscriminate emigration, a great number of adventurers would settle, and would rapidly devise new substances of exportation and importation. Profit attaches alike to selling wares inwards or outwards; and a country is not impoverished by increasing its own internal consumption of foreign commodities. On the contrary, both Asia and Europe would gain by every additional intercourse in either direction. The traffic, the removal to and fro, is the greatest service which commerce renders to the world; it keeps in repair the roads, the havens, and the canals of nations; it diffuses knowlege, refinement, intercourse, and civilization.

'The King of Caubul was a handsome man, about thirty years of age, of an olive complexion, with a thick black beard. The expression of his countenance was dignified and pleasing: his voice clear, and his address princely. We thought at first that he had on armour of jewels, but, on close inspection, we found this to be a mistake, and his real dress to consist of a green tunic, with large flowers in gold, and precious stones, over which were a large breast-plate of diamonds, shaped like two flattened fleur de lis, an ornament of the same kind on each thigh, large emerald bracelets on the arms (above the elbow), and many other jewels in different places. In one of the bracelets was the Cohi Noor, known to be one of the largest diamonds in the world.* There were also some strings of very large pearls, put on like cross-belts, but loose. The crown was about nine inches high, not ornamented with jewels as European crowns are, but to appearance entirely formed of those precious materials. It seemed to be radiated like ancient crowns, and behind the rays appeared peaks of purple-velvet: some small branches with pendants seemed to project from the crown; but the whole was so complicated, and so dazzling, that it was difficult to understand, and impossible to describe. The throne was covered with a cloth adorned with pearls, on which lay a sword and a small mace, set with jewels. The room was open all round. The centre was supported by four high pillars, in the midst of which was a marble fountain. The floor was covered with the richest carpets, and round the edges were slips of silk, embroidered with gold, for the Khauns to stand on. The view from the hall was beautiful. Immediately below was an extensive garden, full of cypresses and other trees, and beyond was a plain of the richest verdure: here and there were pieces of water and shining streams; and the whole was bounded by mountains, some dark, and others covered with snow. When I left the King, I was reconducted to the Kishik Khauneh, where all the gentlemen of the mission received rich dresses of honour. In the above description, I have chiefly confined myself to what was splendid in the ceremony. I must however mention, before I conclude, that although some things (the appearance of the King in particular) exceeded my expectations, others fell far short of them, and all bore less the appearance of a state in prosperity, than of a splendid monarchy in decay.'

Until the presentation to the King was over, none of the gentlemen of the mission went out, but after that time they rode freely through the country. Peshawer stands in the midst of a circular plain about thirty-five miles in diameter. In March, the distant mountains were covered with snow, the plain with the brightest verdure, and the climate was delicious.

'* See a print of it in Tavernier's Travels'

The trees were enough in leaf to give grace and richness to the prospect; and a fortnight completed the new foliage, which exceeds in brilliancy that of Hindostan.

'Many streams ran through the plain: their banks were fringed with willows and tamarisks. The orchards scattered over the country, contained a profusion of plum, peach, apple, pear, quince, and pomegranate trees, which afforded a greater display of blossom than I ever before witnessed; and the uncultivated parts of the land were covered with a thick elastic sod, that perhaps never was equalled but in England. The greater part of the plain was highly cultivated, and irrigated by many water-courses and canals. Never was a spot of the same extent better peopled. From one height, Lieutenant Macartney took the bearings of thirty-two villages, all within a circuit of four miles. The villages were generally large, and remarkably clean and neat, and almost all set off with trees. There were little bridges of masonry over the streams, each of which had two small towers for ornament at each end. The greater part of the trees on the plain were mulberries, or other fruit trees. Except a few picturesque groupes of dates, the only tall trees were the Ficus Religiosa or peepul, and the tamarisk, which last grows here to the height of thirty or forty feet. Its leaves, being like those of the cypress, and very thick, the groves composed of it are extremely dark and gloomy. The town of Peshawer itself stands on an uneven surface. It is upwards of five miles round; and contains about 100,000 inhabitants. The houses are built of brick (generally unburnt), in wooden frames: they are commonly three stories high, and the lower story is generally occupied by shops. The streets are narrow, as might be expected, where no wheeled-carriages are used: they are paved, but the pavement sloping down to the kennel, which is in the middle, they are slippery, and inconvenient. Two or three brooks run through different parts of the town; and even there, are skirted with willows and mulberry trees. They are crossed by bridges, none of which, however, are in the least remarkable.

'There are many mosques in the town; but none of them, or of the other public buildings, deserve notice, except the Balla Hissaur, and the fine Caravansera. The Balla Hissaur is a castle of no strength, on a hill, north of the town: it contains some fine halls, commands a romantic prospect, and is adorned with some very pleasing and spacious gardens; but, as it is only the occasional residence of the King, it is now much neglected. On the north it presents a commanding aspect; but a view of it from the side nearest the town discloses strong signs of weakness and decay. Some of the palaces of the great are splendid, but few of the nobility have houses here.

'The inhabitants of Peshawer are of Indian origin, but speak Pushtoo as well as Hindkee. There are, however, many other inhabitants of all nations; and the concourse is increased, during the King's visits to Peshawer. We had many opportunities of observing this assemblage in returning from our morning rides;

and its effect was heightened by the stillness and solitude of the streets, at the early hour at which we used to set out. A little before sunrise, people began to assemble at the mosques to their morning devotions. After the hour of prayer, some few appeared sweeping the streets before their doors, and some great men were to be seen going to their early attendance at court. They were always on horseback, preceded by from ten to twelve servants on foot, who walked pretty fast, but in perfect order, and silence: nothing was heard, but the sound of their feet. But, when we returned, the streets were crowded with men of all nations and languages, in every variety of dress and appearance. The shops were all open. Dried fruits, and nuts, bread, meat, boots, shoes, saddlery, bales of cloth, hardware, ready-made cloaths, and posteens, books, &c. were either displayed in tiers in front of the shops, or hung up on hooks from the roof. Amongst the handsomest shops were the fruiterers, (where apples, melons, plums, and even oranges, though these are rare at Peshawer, were mixed in piles with some of the Indian fruits); and the cook-shops, where every thing was served in earthen dishes, painted and glazed, so as to look like china. In the streets were people crying greens, curds, &c., and men, carrying water in leathern bags at their backs, and announcing their commodity by beating on a brazen cup, in which they give a draught to a passenger for a trifling piece of money. With these were mixed people of the town in white turbans, some in large white or dark blue frocks, and others in sheep-skin cloaks; Persians, and Afghauns, in brown woollen tunics, or flowing mantles, and caps of black sheep-skin or coloured silk; Khyberees, with the straw sandals, and the wild dress, and air of their mountains; Hindoos, uniting the peculiar features and manners of their own nation, to the long beard, and the dress of the country; and Hazaurehs, not more remarkable for their conical caps of skin, with the wool, appearing like a fringe round the edge, and for their broad faces, and little eyes, than for their want of the beard, which is the ornament of every other face in the city. Among these might be discovered a few women with long white veils, that reached their feet, and some of the King's retinue, in the grotesque caps, and fantastic habits, which mark the class to which each belongs. Sometimes a troop of armed horsemen passed, and their appearance was announced by the clatter of their horses' hoofs on the pavement, and by the jingling of their bridles. Sometimes, when the King was going out, the streets were choaked with horse and foot, and dromedaries bearing swivels, and large waving red and green flags; and, at all times, loaded dromedaries, or heavy Bactrian camels, covered with shaggy hair, made their way slowly through the streets; and mules, fastened together in circles of eight or ten, were seen off the road, going round and round to cool them after their labour, while their keepers were indulging at an eating-house, or enjoying a smoke of a hired culleeaun in the street. Amidst all this throng, we generally passed without any notice, except a salaum alaikum from a passenger, accompanied by a bow, with the hands crossed in front, or an application from a beggar, who would call out for relief from the Teringee Khauns, admonish us that life was short, and the benefit of charity immortal, or remind us that what was little to us was a great deal to him.'

During the stay of the embassy at Peshawer, an alarming rebellion against the King of Caubul was undertaken by Shauh Mahmood; and the King's minister, Akram Khaun, who was known to be on good terms with the English, was singularly unsuccessful against the enemy. Before the first alarm created by the bad news was over, a Hindoo letter-carrier was seized in one of the passes on the way to Caubul; and a report was spread that he was charged with a treacherous correspondence between the English and the rebels. This story was accompanied by a rumour, that the King of Caubul meant to give up to plunder the quarters and property of the embassy. The whole town was consequently in a ferment; people were running up and down in all directions, getting their arms in order, and lighting their matches; and a great mob angrily assembled at the gates of the caravanserai. The gentlemen of the embassy continued to sit quietly in the hall, and to receive company: but Captain Pitman silently doubled the guards, and took other measures of defence. At length, the King's minister made a visit to the ambassador, which put an end to any suspicions of disloyalty: the crowd dispersed; and the English, after having being threatened with massacre, became the hope of the nation. Meanwhile, the strength of the rebels continuing to increase, and also the poverty of the King's exchequer, he was advised to hoist the royal standard, to quit Peshawer, which was indefensible, and to march for Caubul. This determination, being taken, necessarily interrupted the negotiation, and decided the embassy to return. An application was made by the King of Caubul in his necessity to the British for a loan of money: but the ambassador thought that his powers did not extend to the making of such advances. In our judgment, however, there would have been more statesmanship and magnanimity in granting them; since, at an expence which would not have doubled the cost of the embassy, the throne of Caubul would thus probably have been secured to a friendly sovereign, who would have indemnified the government of Calcutta by the cession of some frontier-province. Even if the money had been expended in vain, it would have secured cessions of claim, which future opportunities might have changed into valuable rights.

On the 14th of June the embassy began its retreat by another road, through Chumkuny, along the Caubul river to Acora, and thence to Attock, a fort near the junction of the

Caubul and the Indus. Many persons were seen crossing the river, or floating down the stream, seated astride on the inflated hides of oxen; a contrivance which was used in these countries, as Arrian observes, in the time of Alexander. Above Attock, are rapids which interfere with navigation; and to the east of Attock the region assumes a Hindoo character. The embassy had now descended the higher lands, and quitted their European climate for the more sultry atmosphere of the low districts.

After having left Rawil Pindee on the 12th of July, which is a rainy season, a singular accident was incurred. On one occasion, the rear-guard and some gentlemen of the mission were cut off from the rest by the sudden swelling of a brook, which had not been a foot deep when they began to cross; and the water came down with such surprising violence, as even to carry away some loaded camels that were passing at the time. It rose ten feet within a minute. 'Nothing could be grander than this torrent,' says the author: 'such was its force that it ran in waves like the sea; and rose against the bank in a ridge like the surf on the coast of Coromandel.'—Near Banda was discovered a remarkable building, which seemed at first a cupola, but, when approached, was found to be a solid structure on a low artificial mound; the height, seventy feet; the circumference, one hundred and fifty paces. It is built of hewn sand-stone: steps lead to the massy pile; and pilasters of great simplicity, which support a cornice, decorate the basement and encircle the whole. Nothing of the Hindoo character appeared in this architecture, which struck the beholders as a Grecian mausoleum: an engraving of it is annexed.

The Hydaspes was passed at Jellalpoor in detachments between the 22d and 26th of July: but the rest of the journey back to Delly is not circumstantially related, the country having been already described by other European travellers.

To different individuals of the mission, distinct cares, or tasks, were assigned: one took sketches; another botanized; one mineralogized; and another collected and epitomized the documents of literature. All these separate contributions of remembered or recorded remark have been thrown into a common stock, classed under appropriate heads, and digested into a regular geographical description of the country, which succeeds to the introductory narrative of the journey accomplished by the embassy. The excellent map of Mr. Macartney deserves peculiar approbation.

The first book of this formal survey is intitled a Geographic Description of Afghaunistaun. The situation and boundaries of the country are defined, and an account is given of its mountains, one of whose peaks, from a measurement taken by Lieutenant Macartney, appears to be 20,500 feet above the level of the sea. None of the Andes attain this height. A third chapter is allotted to the rivers; which have rather the character of torrents, and which, as they fall down a surface steeply inclined, are mostly fordable during the greater part of the year. A fourth chapter treats of the natural and political divisions of Afghaunistaun; and a fifth of the climate. It appears that every where the coolness of the weather is as the elevation of the soil; and that to have ascended up the mountains to a higher level is, both for the surrounding climate and the produce, equivalent to moving northwards or southwards from the tropics. It would deserve calculation to ascertain with how many degrees of latitude a mile of elevation corresponds. The westerly winds are prevalent throughout the Afghaun country, and are cold, while the easterly winds are hot. A pestilential wind called the Simoom sometimes invades this region: it has a peculiar smell, and blows only for a little while, but frequently stifles. When a man is caught in it, says the author, it generally occasions instant death; the sufferer falling senseless, and blood bursting from his nostrils. This wind probably consists of a peculiar gas, perhaps of the same which forms the surraub: when chemistry has ascertained its composition, the remedy will no doubt be devised.

Chapter vi. treats of the animals, vegetables, and minerals. Most of the European trees are common, yet the date flourishes, notwithstanding the cold; and so do camels. Lead, salt, and salt-petre are very abundant.

The second Book gives a general Account of the Inhabitants of Afghaunistaun; and first of their origin and early history. They are here deduced from the mountains of Ghore, and are supposed, previously to their having embraced the Mohammedan faith, to have been addicted to the religion of Boodh. Sir William Jones advanced a rash theory of their descent from the Jews, which is here satisfactorily refuted in the concluding note. Of the divisions and government of the Afghaun nations, we have an account in the second chapter of this book. Clanship is established among them, as in most pastoral nations: but a high independent spirit animates the chiefs of families. Mr. Ephinstone observes: 'To an old man of the tribe of Meeankhail, I was urging the superiority of a quiet life under a powerful monarch, to the discord, the alarms, the bloodshed attending the present independence. The old man replied with great warmth: We are content with discord, we are content with alarms, we are content with bloodshed; but we will never be content with a master.' Mr. E. thinks that this feudal independence of the gentry affords good materials for the construction of a free national constitution; and he seems inclined to prophecy the regeneration of the East from the future institutions of Afghaunistaun.

Marriages, the condition of women, the state of moral restraint, and similar connected topics, occupy the third chapter. Polygamy exists only among the rich. The funerals have the usual Mohammedan forms.

Chapter iv. is allotted to the education, language, and literature of the Afghauns: this language is called Pushtoo, or, according to Tiefenthaler, Puqtoo, and is an original tongue, least dissimilar from that of Curdistan. In the Göttingen Transactions for 1804, M. Tychsen has inserted a dissertation *De Afganorum Origine;* and in Adelung's *Mithridates* a very short vocabulary is given, which may be much extended by the help of the document E inserted in the Appendix to this volume. The Persian alphabet is employed: but, as it is deficient in some sounds peculiar to the speech of the Afghauns, several additional points or marks have come into use. The best of their poets is Khooshhaul, who was Khaun of the Khuttuks, a tribe situated to the east of Peshawer. His life was spent in a struggle with the Great Mogul, Aurungzebe; and his poems are intended to animate his countrymen to the defence of their independence:

' One poem begins thus:

' " Come, and listen to my story,
In which both good and evil are displayed.
It contains both precept and example,
Agreeable to the understanding of the wise.
I am Khooshhaul, the son of Shahbauzkhan;
Descended from a race of warriors.
Shaubauz was the son of Yeheia Khaun,
Like whom there never was another youth.
Yeheia Khaun, of Acora,
Who was a Sultan at the sword.
He was both gallant at the use of the sword,
And a master of archery with his bow.
Any enemy that appeared against him
Soon found his place in the tomb.
He had both the sword and the board;
Both courage and courtesy.

* * * * * * *

His companions
Were men of spirit, who sported with their lives;
And in all transactions they were sincere.

They went to their graves dyed with blood.
Such heroes were they all.
The family became numerous;
And most of them turned out worthy men.
United in every undertaking.
Honour and reputation were dear to them all.
It was in the year of the Hejra 1022,
That I came into this world." '

In the course of the poem, Khooshhaul boasts that, on his father's death, he became chief of the tribe, and ruled over thirty thousand Khuttuks; he also enumerates his horses, hawks, and hounds, proclaims the praise of his own hospitality, and reproaches some of his kindred, who had gone into the service of Aurungzebe. Into the hands of this sovereign he himself fell, and was confined for three years in the hill-fort of Givalior, during which period these historical elegies were composed. We will make another extract:

' " Whence has this spring appeared again,
Which has made the country all around one rose garden.
The anemone is there, the sweet herbs, the iris, and the basil,
The jasmine, the daffodil, the narcissus, and pomegranate flower.
The flowers of the spring are of all colours;
But the cheek of the red tulip glows most among them all.
The maidens have handfuls of roses in their bosoms.
The youths have bunches of flowers in their turbans.
The musician applies his bow to his cheghauneh,
And searches out the melodies of every string.
Come, O cup-bearer, bring full, full cups:
Let me be satiated with wine and revelry.
The Afghaun youth have reddened their hands,
As a falcon dyes its talons in the blood of its quarry.
They have made their white swords rosy with blood,
As a bed of tulips blooming in summer.
Amail Khaun and Derry a Khaun were the heroes.
Each emulous of the other.
They stained the valley of Kheiber with blood;
And poured the tumult (of war) on to Currupa.
Up to Currupa, and to Bajour, the mountains, and the plains
Trembled, as with an earthquake, again and again.
It is now five years, that in those quarters,
Every day has been heard the clashing of bright swords.
Since I left that country, I am annihilated.
Am I dead, or are those around me dead?
I call aloud for troops till I am weary;
But those around me are deaf both to complaints and reproaches." '

He closes his elegy in that unbroken independent spirit which characterized his busy life:

' " I alone

'" I alone feel for the honour of our name;
While the Eusofzyes are cultivating their fields at their ease.
He that now is guilty of such want of spirit
Will see in the end the result of his conduct.
To my mind, death is better than life;
When life can no longer be held with honour.
We are not to live for ever in this world:
But the memory of Khooshhaul Khuttuck will remain."'

The fifth chapter describes the religious sects, priests, and superstitions of the country, which vary little from those of other Mohammedans. The Afghauns are of the sect termed Soonnee, and their Moollahs are somewhat intolerant to the heretics called Sheahs, but less so to the Christians, who are not numerous enough to form a party. There are followers of Shumsee Tubreesee, a sort of deistical free-thinker, who are tolerant to persons of every persuasion; and another metaphysical sect exists, called Soofees, who, like our Berkeley, hold an immaterial pantheism, teaching that every thing is illusion, and every thing God, and that the phænomena of nature and of mind are but varied modifications of the one Divine Eternal Essence. They attach merit to a sort of contemplative devotion which is occupied in admiring the attributes of Deity, which is endeavouring to identify itself with the great whole, and to have no will but submission to the general tendency. Of this pious frame of mind, and this obedient resignation, the eventual reward is to be a re-absorption into the divine nature, out of which all individuality has emanated, and into which it will finally resolve, like drops of water that exhale from the ocean, and are again imbosomed in its immensity. — There are moreover teachers of a material pantheism, like that of Spinoza, who deny the doctrine of a future state; these are called followers of Moolla Zukkee. Many varieties also occur of believers, or miraculists, such as the followers of the saint of Chumkunnee; and a legendary work relating his miracles, which are attested confidently by his disciples, and were wrought about fifty years ago, was presented to the author. — This entire chapter is highly curious, and remarkably well composed: it favours the doctrine of those philosophers, who hold that all the leading sects of opinion are native every where, are necessary forms of human intellect, inborn cerebral varieties of the structure of the organ of idealization, which may adopt a phraseology influenced by the local language, and employ illustrations dictated by the local superstitions, but which must re-produce in all countries idealists and materialists, deists and atheists, immortalists and mortalists, miraculists and anti-supernaturalists, in nearly regular though in unequal proportions. Miracles, according to the Soofees of Afghanistaun, are the virtuous actions of Deity, and the proofs of his moral attributes. The idealists are here, as every where, the favourite sect of the priesthood, and find in the clergy an eloquent if not a disinterested support.

In the sixth chapter, the hospitality and the rapacity of the nation are ascribed to the imperfection of the law called Pooshtoonwullee, which tolerates private redress of injuries, and encourages family-confederacy for such purposes. The seventh chapter considers other manners and customs, and is needlessly detached from the foregoing. Slavery subsists, but in a mitigated form. The want of poor-laws is commonly the cause of perpetuating slavery. Who is to be responsible for the maintenance of the idle, the orphan, the sick, the decrepid, the aged poor? The master, or the parish? In the first case, men are called slaves; in the second case, free.

The inhabitants of towns are described in the eighth chapter; they rise at twilight, go to prayers, breakfast, and then walk from their houses to their shops, which are remote. They take a luncheon and a nap about noon, close the day of toil with evening-prayers, and then have their principal meal called Shaumee. They bathe generally twice in a week, and always on Fridays: the public baths are open to the poor for a penny, to the rich for a shilling, and at certain hours to the women. The love of prospects is termed in their language *Sail*, and is quite a national passion. Every man has a garden out of the town, on a hill, and an alcove commanding a distant view. Always on Friday, which is their sabbath, parties are made to these prospect-stations, or jaunts are taken to more distant points of scenery. — Singular forms of bodily exercise are in use, which are detailed (p. 264.) with the recommendation of introducing them in Europe: they being found conducive to health and to military utility. Other sports abound. The dancing is commonly performed by boys; and vices, here justly deemed unnatural, there pass for instinctive, and are practised 'with disgusting publicity.' Great people differ not much in their manners from the numerous classes, but affect splendor and magnificence.—To the trade of Caubul, to its husbandry, and to its imported population, successive chapters are devoted, and illustrated by coloured engravings.

Book the third treats, in six chapters, of the Afghaun tribes individually: it would form a very important and instructive catalogue to any person, or official board, that was intrusted with the administration of the country: but the little varieties of costume and ferocity, which distinguish these provincial

hordes,

hordes, are little adapted for European attention. Excellent coloured engravings illustrate the descriptions of the text; and an account, at p. 432, 433., of the antiquities of Ghuznee forms a very interesting episode.

Book iv., in seven chapters, treats of the Provinces. Bactria, the Uzbeks, the Eimauks, the Hazaurehs, Heraut, Seestaun, Belochistaun, Lower Sind, Upper Sind, Moultaun, Lya, and Cashmeer, pass successively in review. Of Bokhara it is said, (p. 472.) that it is more populous than any English town except London; that it contains numerous colleges which can accommodate from 60 to 600 students each; that it abounds with caravanserais, where merchants from the remotest extremities of the antient world are in the habit of meeting; and that all religions are fully tolerated by a prince and a people zealously attached to their own. A valuable notice occurs of the constitution of Sind, which is governed by a triumvirate, or directory of three persons, each of whose situations is separately heritable. A curious passage, which may amuse and instruct our shawl-manufacturers, is to be found at p. 508., in the description of Cashmeer.

The fifth book discourses, in seven chapters, of the Royal Government of Caubul: but, as this account applies to an interrupted dynasty, it can no longer be confidently trusted as describing the actual condition of the country.

An Appendix concludes the work, which contains; 1. A History of the Kingdom of Caubul; 2. Narrative of a Journey in these Parts accomplished by Mr. Durie; 3. An Account from native Information of several neighbouring Countries; 4. A Geographical Memoir by Lieutenant Macartney, relative to the Construction of the Map; and, 5. A Pushtoo Vocabulary, which establishes the claim of the Afghaun language to be a mother-tongue.

On the whole, this is a well-executed volume, and forms an important contribution to our knowlege of the remoter Asiatic countries: indeed, geography seldom has to boast so tasteful, so valuable, and so complete an accession of record. It remains for the administrations of London and Calcutta to concert some method of turning to use the knowlege which they now possess of the intervening territory. Might not a regular overland-conveyance between the two cities be established; if not in the form of mail-coaches, yet of mail-caravans? Perhaps it would be worth while to inflect the line of progress through Mecca; in which case, the Mohammedan pilgrims of the East would avail themselves regularly of the institution in great numbers. It would not be difficult for the British government to obtain by negotiation a permission to run its coaches from Antwerp to Belgrade, or its steam-barges down the Danube and across the Euxine. Along the whole line of road, English inn-keepers, and English accommodations, and English bankers, would insensibly extend; and, if our own missionaries were instructed to recommend to their converts a pilgrimage once in their lives to Canterbury, the benediction of civilization, as by the pontiff of Rome, would be conferred on countless barbarian travellers, if not by the prayers of religion, yet by their observation of our country.

Art. II. *The Private Correspondence of Benjamin Franklin,* LL.D. F.R.S. &c. Minister Plenipotentiary from the United States of America at the Court of France, and for the Treaty of Peace and Independence with Great Britain, &c. &c. Comprising a Series of Letters on Miscellaneous, Literary, and Political Subjects: written between the Years 1753 and 1790; illustrating the Memoirs of his public and private Life, and developing the secret History of his Political Transactions and Negociations. Now first published from the Originals, by his Grandson, William Temple Franklin. 4to. pp. 449. 2l. 2s. Boards. Colburn. 1817.

With the name of Franklin are associated many important recollections. Great events are attached to it; and those events are such as we contemplate with pure satisfaction. They are not the trophies of war, stained with blood and rapine, from which the good and the wise recoil with sorrow and disgust: his glory is of a milder and more beneficent kind: the wreath which binds his brow is the wreath of humanity: his battles were fought in the field of reason; and the victories which he obtained were gained over the efforts of tyranny, ignorance, and intolerance. The motto, which Turgot placed under his portrait, is characteristic of his fame:

> "*Eripuit cœlo fulmen sceptrumque tyrannis.*"

His memory is embalmed in the history of his country; and, instead of being obscured by the revolutions of ages, it is likely to gather increased splendor as generations yet unborn, and ages yet to come, shall make farther additions of magnitude and interest to the importance of the American Revolution.

By the publication of the present volume, the elevated reputation of Franklin for virtue, for knowlege, for probity, and for talents, will suffer no diminution; since it bears ample testimony to the fertility of his mind, to the solidity of his judgment, to the justness of his views, to the amenity of his manners, and to his ardent desire of promoting the happiness of mankind. Some characters appear great only when contemplated at a distance, and on a nearer inspection excite only derision or contempt: but the character of Franklin will bear the distant and the microscopic view. We may follow him from the great theatre of politics, where he discussed the destiny of nations, to his domestic fire-side, where he conversed with his friends and trifled with his grand-children, without any deduction from our reverence and our esteem. Nothing artificial appeared in his character, and he was never indebted for his sanctity to a mask.

As the title announces, the letters before us relate to miscellaneous, literary, and political topics. In most of them, we meet with acute remarks, perspicuously expressed; with prudential maxims, sometimes illustrated by appropriate instances and happy allusions; with much information scattered here and there, respecting the events of his own time; and with ample materials for the history of the shy, reluctant, lingering, interrupted, but finally successful negotiation, which made the pride of Britain bend to acknowlege the independence of her revolted colonies. Among these epistolary communications, those which are of the miscellaneous kind and have principally a domestic character, which display more of the effusions of friendship and the common-places of ordinary life, will probably be perused with the largest share of interest by the majority of readers. It is true that the portion of the work, in which Franklin appears as a public negotiator, exhibits him in the most dignified aspect as a champion for the liberties of mankind; yet the events to which it relates have become matters of history, and will excite the less curiosity from their general notoriety; though the picture of honest and straight-forward diplomacy which they exhibit deserves to be seriously studied by the politician. We shall attend to the letters chiefly in their order of classification.

Few persons have ever viewed the surface of common life with a more discriminating eye than Dr. Franklin; and his prudential admonitions always merit the most attentive consideration. It has been the practice of modern philosophers to discourage early marriages, and to put off the celebration of the nuptial solemnity from the juvenile period in which the heart is warm, though the head is often indiscreet, to a season of more reflective maturity, when the calculations of prudence have had time to wither the more vivid efflorescence of a sensitive temperament. Dr. Franklin, however, who certainly was not wanting in any of the requisites of domestic prudence, was a friend to early marriages, as affording, on the whole, the best chances of happiness. He observes:

'Particular circumstances of particular persons may possibly sometimes make it prudent to delay entering into that state; but in general, when nature has rendered our bodies fit for it, the presumption is in nature's favor that she has not judged amiss in making us desire it. Late marriages are often attended, too, with this further inconvenience, that there is not the same chance that the parents shall live to see their offspring educated. "*Late children,* says the Spanish proverb, *are early orphans.*"' P. 5.

On some of the intricate and embarrassing questions which are often happening even in common life, when the will is assailed by conflicting considerations, and the mind is like a ship agitated by opposing winds, the following advice will be found of singular service, and deserves an impressive recommendation.

'When those difficult cases occur, they are difficult chiefly because, while we have them under consideration, all the reasons *pro* and *con* are not present to the mind at the same time; but sometimes one set present themselves; and at other times another, the first being out of sight. Hence the various purposes or inclinations that alternately prevail, and the uncertainty that perplexes us. To get over this, my way is to divide half a sheet of paper by a line into two columns; writing over the one *pro* and over the other *con*: then during three or four days' consideration, I put down under the different heads short hints of the different motives that at different times occur to me, *for* or *against* the measure. When I have thus got them all together in one view, I endeavour to estimate their respective weights, and where I find two, one on each side, that seem equal, I strike them both out. If I find a reason *pro* equal to some *two* reasons *con*, I strike out the *three*. If I judge some *two* reasons *con* equal to some three reasons *pro*, I strike out the *five*; and thus proceeding, I find at length where the *balance* lies; and if after a day or two of further consideration, nothing new that is of importance occurs on either side, I come to a determination accordingly. And though the weight of reasons cannot be taken with the precision of algebraic quantities; yet when each is thus considered separately and comparatively, and the whole lies before me, I think I can judge better and am less liable to make a rash step; and in fact I have found great advantage from this kind of equation, in what may be called moral or prudential algebra.' P. 12.

When Dr. Priestley, exulting in some of his philosophical discoveries, had written jocularly to Franklin that he did not despair of attaining the philosopher's stone, the American philosopher replied that, if Dr. Priestley should find it, he hoped that he would lose it again; 'for I believe in my conscience,' said he, 'that mankind are wicked enough to continue slaughtering one another as long as they can find money to pay the butchers.' P. 15. Dr. Franklin did not, at that period, take into his consideration that the long-protracted devastation of the human species, by the horrid engine of war, might be as effectually encouraged by the *politician's paper* as by the *philosopher's stone*; and that the indefinite multiplication of bank-notes might compensate for the want of some chemical menstruum for the unlimited production of gold.

A lively letter to Mrs. Thompson, written when Dr. Franklin was at Paris in February 1777, contains this paragraph:

> 'I know you wish you could see me, but as you can't I will describe myself to you. Figure me in your mind as jolly as formerly and as strong and hearty, only a few years older; very plainly dressed, wearing my thin grey straight hair, that peeps out under my only *coiffure*, a fine fur cap, which comes down my forehead almost to my spectacles.* Think how this must appear among the powdered heads of Paris! I wish every lady and gentleman in France would only be so obliging as to follow my fashion, comb their own heads, as I do mine, dismiss their *friseurs*, and pay me half the money they paid to them. You see the gentry might well afford this, and I could then enlist these friseurs, who are at least 100,000, and with the money I would maintain them, make a visit with them to England, and dress the heads of your ministers and privy counsellors; which I conceive at present to be *un peu dérangées*.'

In two or three passages in the present correspondence, Dr. Franklin gives his opinion on parliamentary reform; a topic which had not been so generally discussed in his time as it has been in a more recent period. He seems to have thought that no reform in the mode of parliamentary representation would be of any avail, which did not greatly reduce the patronage of the executive part of the constitution; and to the enormity of that patronage he imputed a greater aggregate of political depravity and corruption than to any other source. He conceived that here public virtue was most incurably vitiated; and that the tree of liberty was cankered and mildewed from its top to its bottom, and from its lowest roots to its highest branches. 'I do not expect,' he says, in a letter to Dr. Price, October 9. 1780, 'that your new parliament will be either wiser or honester than the last. All projects to procure an honest one by place-bills, &c. appear to me vain and impracticable. The true cure, I imagine, is to be found only in rendering all places unprofitable, and the King too poor to give bribes and pensions. Till this is done, your nation will always be plundered; and obliged to pay by taxes the plunderers for plundering and ruining.'

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* Dr. Franklin, however, did give way to the Parisian fashion, and ordered a *perruque* in true court-costume. When it was brought home, the Doctor waiting for it to go to Versailles, it was found to be too small; and all the efforts, grimace, and characteristic swearing of the maker of it failed to adapt it to the head for which it was designed. The Doctor then became rather angry; and the *artist*, endeavouring to excuse his fault, at last declared; "*Après tout, Monsieur, ce n'est pas que la perruque est trop petite, c'est que votre tête est trop grosse.*" The *grossness* of this speech was little consistent with French *politesse*; and, had the maker of wigs been gifted with a little more wit, he might have offered a similar excuse wrapped up in a compliment, by supposing that, since he had taken measure of the Doctor's head, some new and grand conception, with which he was labouring for the good of mankind, had actually enlarged its external dimensions. *Rev.*

Writing in March 1783 to the Bishop of St. Asaph, and speaking of this country, Dr. F. says;

> 'Her great disease at present is the number and enormous salaries and emoluments of office. Avarice and ambition are strong passions, and separately act with great force on the human mind; but when both are united and may be gratified in the same object, their violence is almost irresistible, and they hurry men headlong into factions and contentions destructive of all good government. As long therefore as these great emoluments subsist, your parliament will be a stormy sea, and your public counsels confounded by private interests. But it requires much public spirit and virtue to abolish them; more perhaps than can now be found in a nation so long corrupted.'

A letter to Dr. Price in August 1784 states also Dr. Franklin's opinion that the enormous emoluments of place are among the greatest defects in the British constitution.

> 'It seems,' says he, 'to be a settled point that the minister must govern the parliament, who are to do every thing that he would have done; and he is to bribe them to do this, and the people are to furnish the money to pay these bribes. The parliament appears to me a very expensive machine for government, and I apprehend the people will find out in time that they may as well be governed, and that it will be much cheaper to be governed, by the minister alone; no parliament being preferable to the present.'

Sentiments similar to the above are repeated in other parts; and, without staying to scrutinize their exactness, it is a duty to record the opinion of a statesman of so much celebrity, and of such exalted disinterestedness, on a subject which is at present of the most vital importance both to the government and the people.

Mentioning the beneficence of Thomas Hollis, in a letter to Brand Hollis in 1783, Dr. Franklin makes a remark which, in a moral view, is of high interest, and merits the attentive regard of those who possess the means of adding to the happiness or alleviating the miseries of their fellow-creatures. . . . 'It is prodigious the quantity of good that may be done by one man *if he will make a business of it*. It is equally surprising to think of the very little that is done by many; for such is the general frivolity of the employments and amusements of the rank we call gentlemen, that every century may have seen three generations of a set of a thousand each in every kingdom of Europe, no one of which set in the course of their lives have done the good effected by this man alone.' Indeed, Dr. Franklin appears to have been very early in life strongly impressed with the paramount importance of the god-like virtue of doing good, over that of any other qualities which may rank higher in the false estimate of mankind. On this subject he mentions a circumstance which ought not to pass unnoticed, and which forcibly tends to prove what a permanent impulse is sometimes given to individual character by an incidental occurrence in that period of life, at which the force of impressions is increased by a vivid and unsophisticated sensibility.

'When I was a boy,' says the Doctor, in a letter to the Rev. Dr. Mather of Boston, 'I met with a book entitled *Essays to do good*, which I think was written by your father. It had been so little regarded by a former possessor, that several leaves of it were torn out: but the remainder gave me such a turn of thinking as to have an influence on my conduct through life; for I have always set a greater value on the character of a *doer of good*, than on any other kind of reputation; and if I have been, as you seem to think, a useful citizen, the public owes the advantage of it to that book.'

Addressing Mr. Granville Sharpe, from Passy, July 5. 1785, Dr. Franklin speaks of an abridgment of the liturgy by a noble lord with whom he was acquainted, who had requested the Doctor to assist him by revising the rest of the book. In this undertaking, Dr. F. reduced the catechism to such slender dimensions that he retained only the two questions, "*What is your duty to God? What is your duty to your neighbour?*" with the answers. In the Psalms, he omitted the repetitions, which he found numerous, and the vindictive imprecations, which are not in unison with the doctrine of the forgiveness of injuries that forms such a bright feature in the moral page of Christianity.

When Dr. Franklin returned to Philadelphia in the latter part of the year 1785, he was chosen president or governor by the assembly and council of the state of Pennsylvania, with only one dissentient voice, *except his own*; and this honourable office he continued to fill for three successive years, the longest period for which it could be held by the same individual. He had then nearly attained the advanced age of eighty-three: but his letters, at this period, exhibit no indications of senility; none of the feeble querulousness or the pertinacious garrulity of age. Though he was occasionally harassed by the gout, and was not even free from attacks of the stone, yet his philosophic composure was not suffered to be disturbed, and he maintained a cheerful equanimity to his dying hour. We will extract the letter which he wrote to Mrs. Partridge on Nov. 25. 1788, not because it is one of the best of his compositions at that epoch, but because it is one of the shortest, and helps to pourtray the characteristic serenity and comprehensive charity of his mind:

> 'You tell me our poor friend Ben Kent is gone, I hope to the regions of the blessed; or at least to some place where souls are prepared for those regions! I found my hope on this, that, though not so orthodox as you and I, he was an honest man, and had his virtues. If he had any hypocrisy, it was of that inverted kind with which a man is not so bad as he seems to be. And with regard to future bliss, I cannot help imagining that multitudes of the zealously orthodox of different sects, who at the last day may flock together, in hopes of seeing each other damned, will be disappointed, and obliged to rest contented with their own salvation.'

A beautiful letter, written at the age of 82, to his friend Mr. Small, introduces the learned and ingenious associates whom he had known in England, but who had since taken their departure to the world of spirits; and the amiable writer says, 'every one of them now knows more than all of us they have left behind. It is to me a comfortable reflection, that, since we must live for ever in a future state, there is a sufficient stock of amusement in reserve for us, to be found in constantly learning something new, to eternity, the present quantity of human ignorance infinitely exceeding that of human knowledge.'

In the year 1787, we find the author writing to the Duke de la Rochefoucauld, at Paris, a letter in which he recommended the celebrated Thomas Paine to the civilities of that nobleman. Franklin speaks of Paine as 'an ingenious honest man,' the 'author of a famous piece intitled *Common Sense,* published here, (Philadelphia,) with great effect on the minds of the people at the beginning of the Revolution.'

At the age of 84, when the few who arrive at that degree of longevity are apt to be insensate to the stimuli of freedom or philanthropy, we find Dr. Franklin animated by the prospect of a new and better state of political society, which then seemed to be announced in the dawn of the French Revolution. These hopes have since been found only delusive visions: but they were then generally entertained; and we do not envy the cold selfishness of that man who in such circumstances could not kindle at the prospect of millions of his fellow-creatures bursting the chains of slavery, and claiming that freedom which is the birth-right of man. 'I hope,' says Franklin, 'the fire of liberty which you mention as spreading itself over Europe will act upon the inestimable rights of man, as common fire does upon gold; purify without destroying them; so that a lover of liberty may find *a country* in any part of Christendom.'

We have sometimes heard evil-surmises thrown out respecting Dr. Franklin's religious belief: but, if the expressions of devotional sentiment and of faith in a world to come after death are not deemed sufficiently explicit to remove this prejudice, we trust that it will not be retained by those who peruse the following candid answer, in March 1790, to the Reverend President Styles of Philadelphia, who appears to have requested Franklin to favour him with the particulars of his creed.

> 'It is the first time I have been questioned upon it. But I cannot take your curiosity amiss, and shall endeavour in a few words to gratify it. Here is my creed:—I believe in one God, the creator of the universe. That he governs it by his providence. That he ought to be worshipped. That the most acceptable service we render to him is doing good to his other children. That the soul of man is immortal, and will be treated with justice in another life respecting its conduct in this. These I take to be the fundamental points in all sound religion, and I regard them as you do, in whatever sect I meet with them. As to Jesus of Nazareth, my opinion of whom you particularly desire, I think the system of morals and his religion as he left them to us, the best the world ever saw or is like to see; but I apprehend it has received various corrupting changes, and I have with most of the present Dissenters in England some doubts as to his divinity; though it is a question I do not dogmatise upon, having never studied it, and think it needless to busy myself with it now, when I expect soon an opportunity of knowing the truth with less trouble.'

From a letter which we find at p. 132., without date or inscription, it appears that Dr. Franklin, though a philosopher, was a believer in a particular providence, without which he thought that the basis of all religion would be taken away. 'For without the belief of a Providence that takes cognizance of, guards, and guides, and may favour particular persons, there is no motive to worship a deity, to fear its displeasure, or to pray for its protection.'

Dr. Franklin was in London during the violent ferment which was occasioned by Wilkes's election for Middlesex in 1768, and he thus speaks of the political agitations of that remarkable period:

> 'Tis really an extraordinary event, to see an outlaw and exile, of bad personal character, not worth a farthing, come over from France, set himself up as candidate for the capital of the kingdom, miss his election only by being too late in his application, and immediately carrying it for the principal county. The mob, spirited up by numbers of different ballads, sung or roared in every street, requiring gentlemen and ladies of all ranks as they passed in their carriages to shout for Wilkes and liberty, marking the same words on all their coaches with chalk, and No. 45. on every door; which extends a vast way along the roads into the country. I went last week to Winchester, and observed that for fifteen miles out of town, there was scarce a door or window-shutter next the road unmarked; and this continued here and there quite to Winchester, which is 64 miles.' (P. 162.)

At the time when he wrote the above, Dr. F. appears to have entertained a very different opinion of the constitution and the sovereign of this country from that which he afterward expressed: for in the next letter, written about the same period, to Mr. Ross of Philadelphia, he says, speaking of the tempestuous phænomena which then agitated the political horizon of this country, 'some punishment seems preparing for a people who are ungratefully abusing the best constitution and the best king any nation was ever blessed with.'

While Dr. F. was attending to the interests of the American colonies in various discussions with the English ministers in the year 1768, he, of course, had occasion often to transact business with the Board of Trade. When Lord Clare, who was then at the head of the Board, was about to retire from that situation, the Doctor exhibits a curious anecdote of the conduct of this nobleman, which illustrates the manner of a courtier of that period.

> 'We have lost Lord Clare from the Board of Trade. He took me home from court the Sunday before his removal, that I might dine with him, as he said, alone, and talk over American affairs. He seemed as attentive to them as if he was to continue ever so long. He gave me a great deal of flummery; saying that, though at my examination I answered some of his questions a little pertly, yet he liked me from that day, for the spirit I shewed in defence of my country; and at parting, after we had drank a bottle and half of claret each, he hugged and kissed me, protesting he never in his life met with a man he was so much in love with.' (P. 167.)

Lord Clare was succeeded by Lord Hillsborough at the Board of Trade, while he retained the title and powers of Secretary of State for the Colonies. Of the latter nobleman, Dr. Franklin says, p. 172., 'I know him to be as double and deceitful as any man I ever met with.' The dislike between Lord Hillsborough and Dr. F. was mutual; for they were composed of very different materials, and no antipathies could well be less formed for amicable union. They met at the installation at Oxford in 1773, when the philosopher shewed that he was not to be vanquished in courtesy by the noble Earl.

> 'I went down to Oxford,' says Dr. F., 'with, and at the instance of Lord le Despenser, who is on all occasions very good to me, and seems of late very desirous of my company.—Lord Hillsborough called on Lord le D., whose chamber and mine were together in Queen's College. I was in the inner room shifting, and heard his voice, but did not see him, as he went down stairs immediately with Lord le D., who mentioning that I was above, he returned directly and came to me in the pleasantest manner imaginable, "Dr. F.," says he, "I did not know till this minute that you were here, and I am come back *to make you my bow.* I am glad to see you at Oxford, and that you look so well," &c. In return for this extravagance, I complimented him on his son's (Lord Fairford's) performance in the theatre, though indeed it was but indifferent; so that account was settled. For as people say, when they are angry, if he strikes me, I'll strike him again, I think sometimes it may be right to say, *if he flatters me, I'll flatter him again.* This is lex talionis, returning offences in kind.' (P. 196.)

In 1773, Dr. Franklin wrote a small piece under the title of "*Prussian Edict,*" &c. in order to expose in a lively and striking manner the absurd pretensions of the English government with respect to her American colonies. In this edict, which is dated Dantzic, September 5. 1773, the King of Prussia is made to impose a duty of four and a half per cent. *ad valorem* on all goods imported into Great Britain, in virtue of the rights which had descended to him from his ducal ancestors, whose subjects had made the first German settlements in our island. This *jeu d'esprit,* which was composed with no small share of ability, was inserted in the Public Advertiser; and the artifice was not immediately detected by all who perused it. Dr. Franklin was passing some time at Lord le Despencer's seat at West Wycombe, when the fictitious edict made its first appearance in the news-papers. 'Mr. Whitehead,' says he, 'was there too, who runs early through all the papers, and tells the company what he finds remarkable. He had them in another room, and we were chatting in the breakfast-parlour, when he came running into us, out of breath, with the paper in his hand. Here, says he, here's news for you. Here's the King of Prussia claiming a right to this kingdom! All stared, and I as much as any body; and he went on to read it. When he had read two or three paragraphs, a gentleman present said, *Damn his impudence, I dare say we shall hear by next post that he is on his march with* 100,000 *men to back this.* Whitehead, who is very shrewd, soon after began to smoke it, and looking in my face said, *I'll be hanged if this is not some of your American jokes upon us.* The reading went on, and ended with abundance of laughing, and a general verdict that it was a fair hit.'

[*To be continued.*]

ART. III. *Travels of Ali Bey in Morocco, Tripoli, Cyprus, Ægypt,* &c.

[*Art. concluded from our last Number, p.* 357.]

THE first part of our report of Ali Bey's travels comprized his residence in Morocco, his voyage to Cyprus and Alexandria, and eventually his progress up the Nile to Cairo. We are now to accompany him to Arabia; and, after having related the rites observed by the pilgrims at the birth-place of Mohammed, we shall notice his return through Syria and the central part of Asia Minor to Constantinople. This second volume is not without several of the blemishes already pointed out in our examination of its predecessor: but it possesses a very considerable share of attraction, in consequence of the unreserved opportunity of observation granted to the supposed Mohammedan, and of his admission to two remarkable spots, the interior of the Caaba at Mecca, and the great mosque or temple at Jerusalem; from both of which every Christian, or unbeliever, of whatever description, is most peremptorily excluded.

Ali Bey set out from Cairo in Dec. 1806, travelled with a caravan across the desert to Suez, embarked at that paltry and insignificant sea-port, and, after a passage of great length and some hazard, landed at Djedda, a harbour in the Red Sea, from which a land-journey of two days brought him to the sacred city. A stranger, on arriving at Mecca, is assailed by repeated offers of lodgings, and of supplies of water from the sacred well of Zemzem. To make a fortunate beginning, he should enter the Temple by the "gate of health," which is near the north corner of that stupendous building; after which the pilgrim must go through a variety of ceremonies, the description of which in all their extent would be extremely tedious, but which will be partly found in the following extract:

Ceremonial at Mecca. — 'Being arrived at the house of God, we repeated a little prayer, kissed the sacred black stone brought by the angel Gabriel, named Hajera el Assouad, or the heavenly stone; and, having the guide at our head, we performed the first tour round the Kaaba, reciting prayers at the same time.

'The Kaaba is a quadrilateral tower, entirely covered with an immense black cloth, except the base. The black stone is discovered through an opening in the cloth. It is encrusted on the eastern angle. A similar opening to the former at the southern angle discovers a part of it, which is of common marble.'—

'The pilgrims go seven times round the Kaaba, beginning at the black stone, or the eastern angle, and passing the principal front, in which is the door; from thence turning to the west and south, outside of the stones of Ismael. Being arrived at the southern angle, they stretch out the right arm; when, having touched the angular marble with the hand, taking great care that the lower part of their garment does not touch the uncovered base, they pass it over the face and beard, saying, "In the name of God, the greatest God, praises be to God;" and they continue to walk towards the north-east, saying, "Oh great God! be with me! Give me the good things of this world, and those of the next."—

'The second is like the first, except that the prayers are different from the angle of the black stone to that of the south; but they are the same from the latter to the former, and are repeated with the same forms during the seven rounds.'—

'The procession then directs its course through the principal street, and passes a part of Djebel Meroua, or the hill of Meroua, the pilgrims reciting some prayers at the end of the street, which is terminated by a great wall.—

'There are a number of barbers in waiting to shave the pilgrims' heads, which they do very quickly, at the same time saying prayers in a loud tone, which the former repeat after them word for word. This operation terminates the first ceremonies of the pilgrimage to Mecca.'

These singular details will recall to some of our readers the mysteries of the chapel of Loretto, the picture of the Virgin Mary by the pencil of St. Luke, and other absurdities of our Catholic neighbours. We turn with less dissatisfaction, though certainly without any feeling of admiration, to an account of the local position of this far-famed city. Mecca is situated in latitude 21°. 28′ N., and stands in a very narrow valley, the mean breadth of which is between 3 and 400 yards; the streets, following the winding of the valley, are crooked; and, to complete the irregularity, the houses stand on very different elevations, being built on the sides of the hill. Still the fronts of the buildings are better than we could expect in so uncivilized a country, being superior to most of the towns of Morocco or Egypt, and having a double row of windows and balconies covered with blinds. The building-materials are stone; the height of the houses extends to three or four stories; the roofs are flat, and the rooms are spacious; but nothing can afford a greater contrast than the outward magnificence of the buildings and the interior condition of the inhabitants of Mecca.

'An Arab is by nature generally thin; but those of Mecca, and above all those that serve in the temple, seem absolutely walking skeletons, clothed with a parchment that covers their bones. I must own I was struck with astonishment when I saw them for the first time upon my arrival. What I have advanced may be perhaps considered as an exaggeration; but I protest to the truth of my assertions; and may also add, that it is impossible, without seeing them, to form an idea of an assemblage of such lean and scraggy-looking men, as all of them are, with the exception of the chief of Zemzem, who is the only person that is at all lusty, and two or three eunuchs, a little less thin than the others. It appears even impossible that these skeletons, or shadows, should be able to stand so long as they do, when we reflect upon their large sunk eyes; slender noses; cheeks hollow to the bones; legs and arms absolutely shrivelled up; ribs, veins, and nerves, in no better state; and the whole of their frame so wasted, that they might be mistaken for true anatomical models.'—

'It may be deduced from these observations, that the population of Mecca diminishes sensibly. This city, which is known to have contained more than 100,000 souls, does not at present shelter more than from 16 to 18,000. There are some quarters of the suburbs entirely abandoned, and in ruins; nearly two thirds of the houses that remain are empty; and the greatest part of those that are inhabited are decaying within, notwithstanding the solidity of their construction.'

The town is an English mile in length, and about a quarter of a mile in breadth. The motive for keeping the houses, or rather the fronts of the houses, in a condition so much superior to the surrounding misery, is the interest of each inhabitant in inducing pilgrims to lodge with him. Here is no square or market-place, of which the irregularity of the ground would not admit, but the principal street is filled throughout its extent with sheds containing merchandise and provisions. The barrenness of the neighbouring district obliges the inhabitants to draw their supplies from a distance, so that provisions are both indifferent and dear; in fact, Mecca would never have been inhabited, had it not laid other countries under contribution at first by force of arms, and in later ages by religious enthusiasm. This city was the object of pilgrimage and of idolatrous admiration before the days of Mohammed, who was rather a reformer than an innovator; having pulled down the idols and directed the worship of the people to one divinity; though mixing with it a most undue portion of reverence for himself, and taking especial care to confirm, by the Koran, the lucrative resort of pilgrims to his native place. The days, however, are now past in which all-powerful superstition brought crouds of wealthy votaries to this sacred spot, and the comparatively tranquil state of the country divested the journey of half its present danger: but, unluckily, the inhabitants are ill prepared to compensate by industry or exertion for the sudden decline of other sources of income.

'There is no Mussulman city,' says the author, 'where the arts are so little known as at Mecca. There is not a man there who is capable of making a lock or forging a key; the slippers and sandals are brought from Egypt and Constantinople; there is not one individual to be found who knows how to engrave an inscription; not a gun-smith or cutler capable of making a screw, or replacing any part of the lock of a gun. The sciences are in a similar state; the whole knowledge of the inhabitants is confined to reading the Koran and writing very badly.'

Next to the Scheriff, the principal personage at Mecca is the chief of the well of Zemzem, who fortunately proved well disposed to our traveller; a point of primary consequence on the part of so dignified and dangerous a functionary.

'He is a young man, about twenty-two or twenty-four years of age, extremely handsome, with very fine eyes. He dresses remarkably well, and is very polished. He has an air of sweetness, which is seducing, and appears to be endowed with all the qualities which render a person amiable. As he possesses the entire confidence of the Scherif, he fills the most important place. His title is, The Poisoner. Take courage, reader, lest I should make you tremble for me. This dangerous man was known to me the first time I went to the well of Zemzem, when he made his court assiduously to me. He gave me a magnificent dinner, and sent me every day two small pitchers of the water of the miraculous well. He even watched the moments when I went to the Temple, and ran with the most winning grace and sweetness to present me a handsome cup filled with the same water, which I drank to the last drop, because it would have been considered a sort of crime or impiety to have refused it.

'This wretch observes the same conduct to all the Pachas and important personages who come here. Upon the slightest suspicion, or the least caprice that may arise in the mind of the Scherif, he orders, the other obeys, and the unhappy stranger ceases to exist. As it is reckoned impious not to accept the sacred water presented by the chief of the well, this man is arbiter of the lives of every one, and has already sacrificed many victims.

'From time immemorial, the Sultan Scherifs of Mecca have had a poisoner at their court; and it is remarkable that they do not try to conceal it, since it is well known, in Egypt and Constantinople, that the Divan has several times sent to Mecca, Pachas, or other persons, to be sacrificed in this manner.

'This was the reason why the Mogrebins or Arabs of the West, who are entirely devoted to me, hastened to warn me to be upon my guard upon my arrival in the city. My servants wished this traitor at the devil; but I myself treated him with the greatest marks of confidence. I accepted his water and his enterainments with an unalterable serenity and coolness. I took the precaution, however, to keep three doses of vitriolated zinc, a much more active emetic than tartar emetic, always in my pocket, to take the instant I should perceive the least indication of treason.'

Considerable interest is given to Ali Bey's residence at Mecca by its coincidence with a visit of the Wehabees to that city. Some of these irregular warriors annoyed him in his excursion to Mount Arafat, and another party of them caused him to stop short in his journey to Medina; yet he is not inclined to speak of them with acrimony, or to regard them as the enemies of religion or moral order. They are by no means unbelievers in the main part of the Mohammedan creed, but profess to restore it to its antient purity by removing the absurd additions made by the successors of the prophet and others who were interested in operating on popular credulity. It is on this account that they have destroyed several of the public buildings of Mecca and Medina; a circumstance which gives additional value to the author's account of the former when in their unimpaired state:

'On the same day, (3d February 1807,) a part of the army of the Wehhabites entered Mecca to fulfil the duties of pilgrimage, and to take possession of this holy city. It was by chance I saw them enter.

'I was in the principal street about nine o'clock, when I saw a crowd of men coming; but what men! We must imagine a crowd of individuals, thronged together, without any other covering than a small piece of cloth round their waist, except some few who had a napkin placed upon the left shoulder, that passed under the right arm, being naked in every other respect, with their matchlocks upon their shoulders, and their khanjears or large knives hung to their girdles.'—

'I saw a column of them defile, which appeared composed of five or six thousand men, so pressed together in the whole width of the street, that it would not have been possible to have moved a hand. The column was preceded by three or four horsemen, armed with a lance twelve feet long, and followed by fifteen or twenty men mounted upon horses, camels, and dromedaries, with lances like the others; but they had neither flags, drums, nor any other instrument or military trophy during their march. Some uttered cries of holy joy, others recited prayers in a confused and loud voice.

'They marched in this manner to the upper part of the town, where they began to file off in parties, to enter the temple.—

'Already had the first parties began their turns round the Kaaba, and were pressing towards the black stone to kiss it, when the others, impatient no doubt at being kept waiting, advanced in a tumult, mixed among the first; and confusion being soon at its height, prevented them from hearing the voices of their young guides. Tumult succeeded to confusion. All wishing to kiss the stone, precipitated themselves upon the spot; and many of them made their way with their sticks in their hands. In vain did their chiefs mount the base near the stone, with a view to enforce order; their cries and signs were useless; for the holy zeal for the house of God which devoured them, would not permit them to listen to reason, nor to the voice of their chiefs.'—

'These Wehhabites, who are from Draäiya, the principal place of the reformers, are of a copper colour. They are in general well made, and very well proportioned, but of a short stature. I particularly remarked some of their heads, which were so handsome, that they might have been compared with those of Apollo, Antinous, or the Gladiator. They have very lively eyes, the nose and mouth well formed, fine teeth, and very expressive countenances.

'When we represent to ourselves a crowd of naked armed men, without any idea of civilization, and speaking a barbarous language, the picture terrifies the imagination, and appears disgusting; but if we overcome this first impression, we find in them some commendable qualities. They never rob either by force or stratagem, except when they know the object belongs to an enemy or an infidel. They pay with their money all their purchases, and every service that is rendered them. Being blindly subservient to their chiefs, they support in silence every fatigue, and would allow themselves to be led to the opposite side of the globe. In short, it may be perceived that they are men the most disposed to civilization, if they were to receive proper instruction.'

Mount Arafat is the name of a hill in the neighbourhood of Mecca, which in height is only 150 feet, but is remarkable in the Mohammedan creed for a supposed meeting between Adam and Eve after a long separation; a circumstance to which it owed the name of Arafat, meaning "recollection" or "recognition." Insignificant as it is, however, it forms a main object in the Mecca pilgrimage; and the concourse of people on this spot was immense at the time of Ali Bey's visit. The sides of the hill and its environs were covered with swarms of Wehabees and others, who remained there till sunset; after which, the whole moved forwards along a nar-

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row valley at a quick pace, that they might reach as soon as possible a place called Mosdelila: where, according to their preposterous ritual, the night-prayer must be said not later than an hour and a half after sun-set. On the next day followed a ceremony too childish to notice, were it not characteristic of the superstition of so many millions; we mean the practice of taking up seven small stones to be thrown at a house situated in a narrow spot adjoining to rocks, and supposed to be built by the devil. To complete the absurdity of this custom, the inconvenience of the access subjects the pilgrim very frequently to bruises, or other injuries, when the crowd is great; and Ali Bey, though aided by his people, did not escape unhurt. On reading an account of such miserable ceremonies, it becomes almost matter of regret that the Wehabees, who had put a stop to several of them, should have been, since Ali Bey's visit, driven from Mecca, and the pilgrimage restored to its old career of folly.

Medina.—The traveller's curiosity was strongly excited in regard to this, the second holy city of the Mohammedans; and he determined to attempt a visit to it, notwithstanding the declared prohibition of the Wehabees. Proceeding inland from a town on the coast, against the intreaty of his friends and attendants, he actually pressed forwards till within a small distance of the city; when he was unfortunately stopped by a party of the religionists just mentioned, who deprived him of his baggage, and obliged him to return to the coast.

On the journey back to Suez, a singular scene took place among the Arab carriers in Ali Bey's suite, which we give to our readers in his own words, as a striking specimen of the manners of that people.

‘ The Arab camel-drivers were about to dispute concerning the dividing of the burdens of the camels, because it is generally agreed upon between them, that at the moment of disembarkation, each loads his camel with what he can lay his hand on; so long they keep silence; but being arrived at this spot, they are at liberty to dispute until they come to a group of palm-trees, which is well known, and there the dispute must cease. Every thing is then settled, and each must content himself with that which chance or the result of the altercation has assigned to him.

‘ I had remarked from the beginning of the journey, that some of the camel-drivers murmured among themselves, and had asked the cause of it. I was told in answer that they were to finish the dispute in the town of Tor.

‘ On arriving at this place they make every one alight, and commence the most bitter dispute among themselves. I wished to tranquillize them, and to appease the quarrel. I got for answer that such *was their constitution.* I let them therefore continue their discussion. They huddled themselves together in a circle upon the ground, then rose in dispute, and seated themselves again in the same position, until at length they called in an old man to settle their dispute. The old man arrived, and decided; some were content with his decision, but others called in another old man, and the same scene recommenced. They unloaded some camels to load others, and the dispute continued in the same manner, and with the same cries as before. At length we all remounted and set out, but the dispute still continued: some of the drivers held the camels, and prevented them from proceeding, whilst others ran on to arrive at the place where the contest was to cease. Sometimes they stopt the whole caravan by stooping down together in a circle in the middle of the path, where they re-commenced the discussion, got angry with each other, some insisting and others refusing to exchange burdens, and seizing each other by the collar, and coming almost to blows. At length, on arriving at the group of palm-trees, they exclaimed with one accord, *Hhalas, Hhalas,* "It is enough, it is enough." They then remained motionless as stocks, after which they continued their route very quietly. I could hardly forbear to laugh at seeing this grotesque mode of discussion; but they constantly answered me that it was *the constitution.* I applauded the simplicity of these people, who in reality have not the haughty demeanour of the Arabs of Hedjaz.'

Palestine.—Nothing can afford, even in the present day, a more agreeable change than the fertile vallies of Palestine, on quitting the parched sands of Arabia. The impression made on Ali Bey seems exactly the same as that which was experienced by the progenitors of the Jews, and in our own day by a very different description of combatants; we mean the French soldiers who marched in 1799 from Egypt under Bonaparte. To all these the land of Canaan appeared still to be "the land flowing with milk and honey."

'All the country of Palestine or the Promised Land which I saw from Khanyounes to Jaffa is beautiful. It is composed of round undulated hills of a rich soil, similar to the slime of the Nile, and is covered with the richest and finest vegetation, but there is not a single river in all the district, there is not even a spring; all the torrents I crossed were dry, and the inhabitants have no other water to drink than that which they collect in the rainy season, nor any other means of irrigation than rain water, and that of the wells, which indeed is very good. Such was the cause of the frequent famines which are recorded in history to have happened in this country. A territory in which there is no spring and no river to bring to it the waters of other countries, and whose subsistence depends absolutely upon the local rains, is necessarily exposed to a scarcity, when this blessing from heaven fails, or is insufficient.'

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'It is worthy of remark that all the inhabited places which I have seen in Arabia are situated in valleys or hollows; and on the contrary, all the towns and villages in Palestine are built upon hills or heights. This difference may be attributed to the scarcity of the rains in Arabia, and their abundance in Palestine.—

'Game abounds in Palestine; partridges are found in large coveys so fat and heavy, that no other weapon than a stick is requisite to take them. But at the same time we meet with a frightful number of lizards, different kinds of serpents, vipers, scorpions, and other venomous insects. One of my servants was bitten in the finger, but as he could not tell me by what reptile, I could not consequently apply the proper remedy. Seeing however that the case was urgent, and that the inflammation of the hand increased rapidly, I had recourse to the general remedy, and applied fire to the wounded part.

'The multitude of flies of every species in this country is such that the camels, mules, and horses, become almost mad, and roll themselves upon the ground, and among the bushes to get rid of them.

'But what shall I say of the ants? Let the reader imagine an immense ant-hill extending over the earth for three days' journey, and he will have an idea of what I have absolutely seen. The road is a continued ant-hill, entirely covered with the eggs and remains of these little animals, upon which are seen myriads of ants running in all directions, to complete their daily labours.'

We have already had occasion to see that the assumed character of Ali Bey obliges him to allude with gravity to the absurd traditions of the Mohammedans; and it is in the same capacity that he chuses to speak, in a style somewhat discordant with our belief, of the sacred places in the vicinity of Jerusalem. When in the neighbourhood of Bethlehem, he observed a meteor of singular appearance, and he has no scruple in insinuating that the miracle of the light which shone around the shepherds may be explained by the supposition of a similar phænomenon. He seems throughout his book to have had in view the critics of the *Salons de Paris*; among whom, whatever faith they may profess, it has long been unfashionable to give *belief* to any religion whatever; so that the only object, whether a man writes history with Salaberry or narrates travels with Ali Bey, is to assume the character and creed most likely to give interest to the drama. On arriving in Jerusalem, Ali Bey was again admitted to an important privilege in virtue of his being a good Mussulman; we mean, into the interior of the Temple, to which no Christian is permitted to approach; and he has given a long and minute description of this celebrated building, accompanied by elevations and sections of its principal parts. Our readers will recollect that Dr. Clarke, while he lamented the impossibility of treading this forbidden ground, expatiated on the uncommon beauty of its exterior appearance, and pronounced it (see M. R. Vol. lxix. p. 126.) to be "a phœnix risen from the ashes of its parent." To comprehend fully the description of Ali Bey, it would be necessary to have recourse to his engravings; and we must therefore confine ourselves to his account of the two principal parts of this remarkable pile of building.

'*El Haràm*, the present Temple of Jerusalem, is an union of several buildings erected at different periods of Islamism, which bear upon them demonstrative proofs of the prevailing taste of the various ages when they were severally constructed. They form however a very harmonious whole.

'It is not precisely one mosque, but a group of mosques; its name in Arabic (El Haràm) strictly signifies a temple or place consecrated by the peculiar presence of the Divinity; the profane and the infidels are forbidden to enter it. The Mussulman religion acknowledges but two temples, that of Mecca, and that of Jerusalem; both are named El Haràm; both are equally prohibited by the law to Christians, Jews, and every other person who is not a Mussulman.—No Mussulman governor dare permit an infidel to pass into the territory of Mecca, or into the Temple of Jerusalem. A permission of this kind would be looked upon as a horrid sacrilege; it would not be respected by the people, and the infidel would become the victim of his imprudent boldness.

'This edifice forms the south-east corner of the city of Jerusalem, and occupies the scite on which formerly stood the Temple of Solomon.'—

'The principal part of the temple is composed of two piles of magnificent buildings, which may be regarded as two distinct temples by their respective situation; but they form together one symmetrical and consistent whole. The one is called El Aksà, and the other El Sàhhara.

'*El Aksa* is composed of seven naves, supported by pillars and columns: at the head of the centre nave is a fine cupola. Two other naves branch off right and left, at right angles with the principal body of the edifice.'—

'The great central nave of the Aksa is about 162 feet long, and 32 feet wide. It is supported on each side by seven arches lightly pointed, resting upon cylindrical pillars, in the form of columns, but without any architectural proportion.'—

'*El Sàhhara* is a temple which by its harmony with El Aksa may be considered as making a part of the same whole; it takes its name from a rock that stands in the centre of the edifice, and is much revered.—

'It is an octagonal temple, of which the exterior sides are each 61 feet in length.'—

'The diameter of the cupola is nearly 47 feet, and its height 93. The total diameter of the edifice is about 159½ feet.

'The plane of the central circle is raised three feet above the plane of the surrounding naves, and is inclosed by a high and magnificent railing of iron gilt. This central circle incloses the sacred rock called *El Sahhara-Allah;* it is the principal object of this superb edifice, and generally speaking, of the haram or Temple of Jerusalem.

'*El Hadjera el Sahhara*, or The Rock of Sahhara, rises from the earth upon a mean diameter of 33 feet, in form resembling the segment of a sphere.—

'The Mussulman believes that the Sahhara Allah is the place of all others, except El Kaaba or the House of God at Mecca, where the prayers of men are most most agreeable to the divinity. It is on this account that all the prophets since the creation of the world to the time of the prophet Mouhhammed, have come hither to pray.—

'On the night when the prophet Mouhhammed was carried away from Mecca by the angel Gabriel, and transported in a moment through the air to Jerusalem, upon the mare called El Borak, which has the head and neck of a fine woman; as also a crown and wings; the prophet, after leaving El Borak at the gate of the Temple, came to offer up his prayer upon El Sahhara.—

'At the moment when the prophet stood upon El Sahhara, the rock, sensible of the happiness of bearing the holy burden, depressed itself, and, becoming like soft wax, received the print of his sacred foot upon the upper part towards the south-west border. This print is now covered with a large sort of cage of gilt metal wire, worked in such a manner that the print cannot be seen on account of the darkness within, but it may be touched with the hand, through a hole made on purpose. The believers, after having touched the print, proceed to sanctify themselves by passing the hand over the face and beard.'

The town of Jerusalem is at present only two miles and a half in circumference, and, if we exclude the citadel, occupies nearly the form of a square. It is built on the southern side of the upper plane of a mountain, and is surrounded by precipices bounded by walls to the E. and W., with only two level spaces for egress, one towards the S. and the other to the N. across the summit of the mountain. The houses are formed of free stone, and have sometimes small gardens belonging to them; though in general very little vacant space is left in this city, which contains, within a circumscribed circuit, nearly 30,000 persons.

'The streets of Jerusalem are tolerably regular, straight, and well paved, several having footpaths, but they are narrow, dull, and almost all are more or less on the descent; the houses are generally two or three stories high, with few windows, and extremely small doors. The fronts are quite plain, simply constructed of stone, without the least ornament; so that in walking the streets, one might fancy one's self in the galleries or corridors of a vast prison. In short, they exemplify the truth of the descriptions of Jeremiah. What a contrast to the fine streets of Mecca, which are so ornamented and so gay! I never expected to find this disadvantage in a city inhabited for so many ages by Christians; but *facta est quasi vidua, domina gentium.*'—

'Provisions are abundant, and very cheap; for example half a dozen of fowls may be had for a Spanish piastre. The bread commonly eaten is a sort of bad cake, but there is some very good bread to be had; good vegetables, herbs, and fruits, are in abundance, though they are all produced rather late in the season. The meat is of an excellant quality.'—

'There is great diversity of costume, every body adopting that which he likes best, whether Arab, Syrian, or Turk; but the lower order of people generally wear a robe or shirt of white and black, or brown broad-striped stuff, as in Arabia; and persons in easy circumstances, those employed about the Temple, &c. wear the Turkish costume, with the kàouk or high turban. The women cover themselves with a large white cloak or veil.'

From Jerusalem, the traveller proceeded to Jaffa, which he describes as a small town situated on a hill, and fortified so as to be capable of making a considerable defence. Here he embarked for Acre; which, though no longer guarded by the terrors of Djezzar Pacha, is still formidable, the old walls being strengthened by bastions in the European manner, and defended by a scarp, a ditch, and a counter-scarp. The reigning Pacha was in former years one of Djezzar's officers, and governs with much more moderation than his energetic predecessor. A short journey across the plain, eastward, brings the traveller in six or seven hours to Nazareth, which is situated on the slope of a mountain facing the E., and contains about 3000 inhabitants, among whom are many Catholics. The total number of monks in the Holy Land is about one hundred and twenty, all Spaniards or Italians, and resident chiefly in Jerusalem. The road from Nazareth to Damascus leads past the small town of Canaa, celebrated for the miraculous change of water into wine; and a farther progress brings the traveller within sight of the sea of Galilee, a beautiful sheet of water, surrounded by high mountains, and extending about 18 miles in length by 5 or 6 in breadth. The Jordan, before it falls into this spacious lake, is not a large river, being at the customary place of crossing (Jacob's bridge) only between 60 and 70 feet wide, with a rapid but not deep current.

The best method of travelling in the Turkish dominions, when expedition is the object, is to accompany one of the public messengers called Tartars; who are accustomed to perform their journies with a degree of dispatch which could scarcely be expected from so ignorant and slothful a people as the Turks.

'In order to be free from the cares of travelling, it is customary to bargain with a Tartar, who undertakes all expences upon the road, such as horses, lodgings, and provisions, for a stipulated sum of money; one half of which is paid to him at the moment of departure, and the other at the end of the journey. I agreed to give my Tartar 800 piastres (100l. sterling) for my journey from Aleppo to Constantinople, and he furnished me with a horse for myself, another for my slave, and a third for my baggage; independent of all expences for provisions, lodging, and accidental charges, which were also at his cost.'—

'Having often spoken of the khans, (or inns,) it appears to me necessary to give a description of the buildings of this kind which I met with in Turkey.

'A khan is a quadrangular edifice, having sometimes towers at the angles, and is crowned with battlements in the same manner as a fortress. These monuments are more or less considerable. Their usual size is about 133 feet on each side. In the interior they consist generally of two courts surrounded with stables. Some have a mosque, or simply a chapel, in which travellers pray; and there are others that have dwellings. I believe that all the khans have been built by order of government.

'These establishments are always open. The caravans and travellers enter and go away, without saying a word to any one; in short without asking permission, or taking leave on their departure. Every person stays as long as he thinks proper, without paying the smallest contribution to any body.

'So fine an institution in the Turkish empire is an effect of the principle in religious morals, which establishes as one of the indispensable obligations of a Mussulman, that he shall exercise hospitality towards all travellers of whatever nation or religion. In consequence of this principle, there are khans in all places peopled as well as desert, where the traveller has to halt. Those that I visited are very well built of stone, some even with an architectural embellishment; but, as they are all very ancient, some are going to decay, and I believe that they will never be repaired.'

A most striking contrast to the indolence and poverty of Mecca is exhibited by the busy and ingenious population of *Damascus.* Without adopting the current notion, repeated by Ali Bey, that this city contains so many as 400,000 inhabitants, we may safely assert that, with regard to its wealth and industry, the expectations of the traveller, however swelled by oriental imagery and veneration for antiquity, are not likely to experience disappointment. The once famed sword-blades of Damascus do not indeed retain their reputation, being now of the same temper as those which are made in other parts of the Turkish dominions: but the surrounding country is fertile, the products both of nature and art exhibited in the markets are of great amount, and a very active intercourse is carried on both with the neighbouring district and with the more remote cities of Syria and Asia Minor. This fact is curiously exemplified in the surprizing number of joiners and carpenters employed in making packing-cases for goods, who occupy almost the whole of a suburb of the city.

'The provision-markets rival and surpass in abundance the bazars for the sale of merchandise. The quality of the different articles is excellent, and I firmly believe there is no country in the world supplied with better victuals; the meat is fat and delicate; the vegetables, herbs, and roots are extremely tender; the succulent fruits are sweet, and of a monstrous size. Game of all sorts is abundant. The honey and milk are delicious. The bread is whiter and better than in Europe. In short, it may be said that this is the best place in the world for animal subsistence. The Arabs bring hither vegetables; and the fire-wood, which is obtained from the gardens and plantations, is common and cheap; there is none brought from the forests, by reason of their distance.'

Damascus has the great advantage of an ample supply of water; and, though the inhabitants are superstitious, or rather fanatical, they do not forbid the exercise of other religions than their own. The Jews have here eight synagogues; besides which the city contains four Christian churches, and three convents of Franciscan monks: but it is necessary for Europeans to assume the dress of the country, and to make a point of not appearing otherwise than on foot. The women of this city are deemed handsome, and of modest behaviour, as far at least as the upper and middling ranks are concerned. Many of the houses would be accounted comfortable even in an European city; and the poor are much better employed and provided than in towns of less industry.

The journey from Aleppo to Constantinople offered nothing remarkable; except the discovery that several of the places through which the traveller passed, such as Homs and Hama, are not villages, as they are absurdly called in the maps, but large and flourishing towns. They are both placed near the Orontes, on the high road leading northward to Antioch; and Hama in particular is a very considerable city, in a pleasant situation: part of it standing on high ground, while the remainder descends in the shape of an amphitheatre to the bank of the river. The opposite part of the town rises in like manner from the other bank of the Orontes, and incloses a hill of some height within its precincts.

'*Antioch*, called by the Turks *Antahia*, is a city which contains fifteen thousand Mussulmen, three thousand Christians of various rites, and a hundred and fifty Jews. The Greek patriarch of Antioch was at this period at Damascus, and the Catholic patriarch the mountains.

'Modern Antioch occupies but a small part of the scite of the ancient city, of which the vast line of wall still exists, and attests its former grandeur. The walls enclose a space of more than half a league in diameter, and encompass several mountains with ancient fortifications, which extend down to the plain. They are of stone, half ruined, and are flanked with towers at unequal distances. The ancient gate by which I entered is magnificent, but it threatens to fall every moment.'—

'The streets of Antioch are narrow, but they have very elevated foot-pavements on each side. The houses are of stone, and have a sombre and monotonous appearance. They were the first that I had seen covered with tiles since I had left Mecca. Every thing indicates that this is a very rainy country. The inhabitants mix snow with water to cool their beverage. The climate is colder than at Aleppo, where no snow falls. It appears that the principal product of the country is silk. The water and provisions are good. The Arab cakes are the only sort of bread used. I met several women upon my arrival who were perfect beauties.'

On arriving at Constantinople, Ali Bey lodged in the hôtel of the Marquis of Almenana, the Spanish ambassador at the Porte; taking the precaution to have the apartments fitted up in the Turkish manner: a precaution which, however, would not have availed him if it had been known that he, a Spaniard and a Christian, had dared to set his feet within the sacred Kaaba of Mecca. He proceeds to give his readers a long description of Constantinople; from which we decline to make any extract, as he possessed no particular means of observation beyond those whose works are already before the public. The whole is concluded with a relation of the journey from Constantinople to Bucharest; written, we know not why, by another person.

Having now brought this traveller to the close of his journey, we shall proceed to recapitulate the principal dates in his various peregrinations. The time which he passed in the Morocco dominions was somewhat above two years; viz. from June 1803 to October 1805. In Cyprus, he continued two months; in Alexandria, nearly six; in Cairo, two. He reached Mecca in January 1807; returned to Cairo in the June of that year; travelled, with little delay, to Jerusalem, Acre, Damascus, Antioch, &c.; and arrived at Constantinople in the end of October 1807. Setting out from that capital in the beginning of December, he passed through Bulgaria and Wallachia, and entered on the Austrian territory in the course of three weeks; — here the present narrative ends: but we are enabled, from other sources, to apprize our readers that he came to Paris in 1808, soon after the completion of his journey; and that he was supposed to have been previously in an understanding with Bonaparte, whose chimerical projects of conquest bear, in fact, a considerable resemblance to his own wanderings. Be this as it may, he had little difficulty in obtaining from the French court a favourable testimonial, with which he went to Madrid; and he was occupied in publishing his memoirs, when his Imperial patron commenced his luckless usurpation of the Spanish crown. King Joseph appointed Ali Bey in 1810 to be intendant of Segovia, and in the next year prefect of Cordova: but fortune soon seemed to envy him his new honours, and condemned him, after the decisive day of Vittoria, to fly with his dethroned sovereign across the Pyrenees, and take refuge in Paris: where he continues to reside, seeming now to regard that capital as his permanent abode, his daughter being married to M. de L'Isle de Sales, a member of the Institute.

Arresting now the course of the narrative, we direct our observations to the merits of the book as a literary composition; and here, as we shall have some rather formidable charges to bring against the author, it is fair to set out with a notice of the difficulties with which he had to contend, and to premise that nothing can be more dry and monotonous than an itinerary through so bare a country as Morocco or Arabia. It can record little else than the hour of striking the tents, the direction of the compass which was followed, the aspect of the country, and the spot at which the travellers halted for refreshment at a spring. In this manner they pass over extensive tracts, day after day, without meeting a human being, and sometimes without seeing a single animal, except a few lizards or spiders on the branches of some small sun-burnt plant. Again, in treating of towns, little is to be noticed except old mosques, dark streets, and crumbling walls. To give interest to such uninviting topics, it required the pen of a practised writer; or of one who will pass slightly over trifling or often-repeated incidents, and seek objects of interest or variety either in his own reflections or in the character of his companions and the inhabitants of the country. Nothing of this kind, we are sorry to say, appears in the pages of Ali Bey; who seems bewildered whenever he ventures into the range of historical conjecture, as in the traditionary accounts of a female sovereign of Cythera; or whenever he attempts to moralize on the difference of national character, as in the outset of his book after having crossed the Streights of Gibraltar. All this might pass merely as a slender drawback from a work in which the activity and enterprize of the traveller prepare us for making a large stock of allowances in other respects: but we apprehend that certain predominant features in the character of the present author have led to more important trespasses, and to the insertion of allegations against which it is of importance to convey an admonitory hint to our readers.

No traveller, we may almost venture to add no human being, was ever said to have so many hair-breadth-escapes as Ali Bey. Whether he proceeds by sea or by land, dangers and difficulties surround him, and to all appearance nothing short of a miracle can save him: yet, in all these cases, he and his companions are preserved from impending destruction, and generally by the courage and judgment of Ali Bey himself. That the situation should be new to him and familiar to his companions makes no difference in the result; *his* resources are found equal to the emergency, while those of his associates are woefully inadequate. For a proof of this statement, the reader has merely to turn to any situation of difficulty, such as the passage describing the journey in the direction of Medina; or to the paragraph (Vol. i. p. 187.) in which the author takes credit for so much fearless intrepidity in pushing forwards, against the intreaty of all his friends, to meet the Boanani Arabs. Again, on the passage from Larisch to Tripoli, the vessel on board of which he was embarked encountered two dreadful tempests, in both of which he represents himself as displaying extraordinary judgment and presence of mind. Had we *sea-room*, we would select his account of one of these emergencies, (Vol. i. p. 224.) as affording a curious example of the strain of amplification in which he indulges on every extraordinary occasion: but we must only refer to the volume itself. We confess our inability to explain the formidable meteor that figures so conspicuously in this passage, as well as another (Vol. i. p. 258.) which was of a still more horrific character.—In nothing is the traveller's lofty style more conspicuous than in the air of indifference with which he speaks of money. If report states the truth, he was contented with so slender an annuity as 120l., payable to his wife and daughter from the court of Spain, in consideration of the perils and cost of the journey *; and how can we reconcile this very moderate indemnity with the lavish expence displayed at almost every stage of his progress? He speaks of a present of 50l. to a *fakih*, or Morocco saint, as a very trifling matter; and, when he observed that the mosque at Tangiers had no supply of water for drinking, he caused a proper vessel to be inclosed in masonry at the gate, and appropriated a sum sufficient to keep it constantly supplied with this fluid.* His retinue appears always to be numerous; as, for example, on leaving Cairo, he says, 'my part of the cavalcade was composed of fourteen camels and two horses *only, for I had left almost all my effects and a number of my servants in Egypt.*' We are, however, left entirely in the dark as to the funds from which all this pomp was supplied, and as to the manner of obtaining the necessary remittances from Europe. These matters are not in themselves of high moment, but they should not be allowed to escape animadversion, inasmuch as they afford evidence of a disposition to exaggerate in details of greater importance. As a specimen of the author's tendency in this way, we may refer to the passage (Vol. ii. p. 33.) descriptive of the danger of navigating the Red Sea. We have long been aware that the hazard of this navigation is more than usually imminent: but, were it such as it is here represented, could such aukward sailors as the Arabs succeed in traversing it, or could our expedition to Egypt in 1801 have performed the passage, with a number of transports, with so few casualties? We may also ask, how could Ali Bey himself have accomplished the long voyage from Suez to Djedda, in an ill-built and ill-manned vessel?

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* See the article Badia y Leblich in the *Biographie des Hommes vivans*, a work of which the first part has just appeared at Paris, and of which we propose to make an early report.

If by these various strictures we appear to bear too hard on this adventurous traveller, we must intreat our readers to fix their attention on any particular passage of importance, such as the description of Mecca, and to observe with what insignificant details and ill-judged remarks the subject is encumbered. What are we to think of a writer who gravely supposes (Vol. i. p. 298.) that the fountains of Cythera, in the island of Cyprus, may derive their supplies from those of Caramania on the *main-land, and that the fresh water may pass under the bed of the sea?* Yet this is the author of whom we are told, (Pref. p. 11.) '*Il règne dans ces Mémoires un interet majeur, que son genie seul pouvait imprimer à tout ce qui sort de sa plume:*' while, a few pages farther on, (p. 27.) we find the Greek bishop of Cyprus declaring, "We truly congratulate those who have given birth to so *wise a man*, a hero in all respects resembling the ancient Greeks, our progenitors."

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* We cannot refrain from remarking, *en passant*, that, in a climate in which water is of such first rate importance, he could not have made a more benevolent or politic use of a sum of money; it being common with devout persons in the East to provide for such a purpose by the erection of a reservoir, by fitting up a well at the road-side, or by planting avenues of trees so as to afford a refreshing shade to the wearied traveller. The Europeans acquired this practice in their crusading expeditions; and it is to it that we owe, in the southern and central parts of Europe, those wells along the public road which are generally distinguished by a cross and an inscription.

The work has several appendages which might with great propriety have been omitted, such as long descriptions of Alexandria and Constantinople, an exposition of the Mohammedan religion, and even a life of the prophet; a life which, in fact, has never been well written in English, but for which a book of travels is evidently not the appropriate medium. The second volume is better executed than the first, containing in various parts interesting and entertaining remarks: yet the detail, taken as a whole, is tedious, the author dwelling with unnecessary minuteness on the description of objects and places, and wanting even in his journal that attraction which is generally the accompaniment of a personal narrative. The style is always verbose, and not unfrequently inflated; containing also repeated attempts at fine writing, which are almost invariably unsuccessful. In France, where an unusual latitude of style is permitted even in prose-compositions, such absurdities are not uncommon: but we are rather surprized that a work of considerable importance and great expence has been given to the English public in so uncouth a dress.

As to the translation, indeed, it must be admitted, in extenuation of the various defects of the book, that few writers have been more unlucky in a translator. The English publishers, having chosen to drop the fiction of Ali Bey's Turkish extraction, should have given directions to make various other alterations of a similar nature throughout, and to retrench his pretended effusions in support of Mohammedanism; and the translator might have made farther improvements by abridging the wearisome description of Mecca and other places: but, above all, by studying to condense the diffuse and feeble composition of the original. So far from any thing of this kind having been attempted, the English version not only retains all the defects of the French, but is also replete with French idioms and various examples of carelessness. We meet in every page with such expressions as *exactitude of my journal; isolated* for *insulated; ruinated* for *ruinous; he repeated me his offers of service; a man addicted to truth; he sought where he could fix himself strongest;* a vessel *charged* instead of *loaded*, &c. &c. *La douce lumière de la lune* is rendered the *soft*, instead of the *mild* light of the moon; the word *sacristy* is used without explanation, as if it were as familiar to an English as a French reader; and the word *réconnoissance*, given as the meaning of the Arabic word Arafat, is translated *gratitude* instead of *recollection*,

collection, although in the former it had evidently no such signification. The Paris editor, on finding that Ali Bey saw, from the mountain near Tangiers, two fleets of men of war in October 1803, declares that they were the ships engaged in the battle of Trafalgar: this is agreeable to the usual *légèreté* of a Frenchman, but what are we to think of an English translator who was not aware that this memorable action did not take place till two years afterward?

Another passage, which the translator should have disdained to insert in the English text, is that most extraordinary paragraph in which Ali Bey thus falsely accounts for the success of our expedition to Egypt:

> 'It is well known that a handful of Frenchmen, occupying Egypt, were obliged to yield to the united efforts of an English army of 23,400 men, commanded by General Abercrombie; of a Turkish army of 6000 men, under the orders of Hassan Pacha, Captain Pacha of the Ottoman Porte, that disembarked at Aboukir; of another English army of 6000 men, headed by General Baird, that landed at Suez; and a fourth army composed of 28,300 Turks coming from Syria, and led by the Grand Vizier; without reckoning 27,000 sailors and other persons employed, which make a total of 90,700 men. In consequence of these forces, Egypt remained in the hands of the English and Turks.'

The principal plates and maps in this work are a Plan of the City of Morocco; Sketches of Cythera, Idalia, Paphos, and other places in Cyprus; Plans of the Temple and City of Mecca; Plan of the great Mosque or Temple of Jerusalem; Map of the Empire of Morocco, sketched by Ali Bey; Map of Northern Africa, copied from that of Major Rennell, with the singular addition of the supposed inland sea, and the still more singular indication of the antient island of Atlantis; Map of part of the Coast of Arabia along the Red Sea; Sketch of the Route of Ali Bey in Cyprus, Cyria, and Asia Minor. In addition, the volumes contain eighty-three plates of various kinds; some of which, such as the ground-plans, sections, and elevations of buildings, are tolerably engraved; while many others, particularly the landscapes, are of very inferior execution. As exemplifications of the latter, the reader has merely to turn to the different plates (Vol. i. p. 293, *et seq.*) of Idalia, Paphos, and other parts of Cyprus; where he will see much very plain workmanship, although, if we may judge from the inscription, the labours of the artist were destined for French as well as English readers.

Art. IV. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London*, for the Year 1816. Part II. 4to. 17s. 6d. sewed. Nicol and Son.

Physiological and Chemical Papers.

Experiments and Observations to prove that the beneficial Effects of many Medicines are produced through the medium of the circulating Blood, more particularly that of the Colchicum Autumnale upon the Gout. By Sir Ev. Home, Bart. V.P.R.S. — *An Appendix to a Paper on the Effects of the Colchicum Autumnale on Gout.* By the Same. — In the progress of science, it is so difficult to determine what use or advantage may arise from any fact that is brought to light, that we ought always to receive it with thankfulness, although apparently unimportant; yet we confess that we have seldom met with any thing, bearing the name of experimental investigation, which was more trifling, in proportion to the magnificent conclusions that are deduced from it, than the matter of these two papers. The author gives an account of the operation of the *eau médicinale* on himself, and compares it with the effect of a vinous infusion of the *colchicum* on dogs, both when injected into the jugular vein and when simply received into the stomach. In one instance, the infusion was given to the dog in a small dose, so as to resemble what we may suppose to be its effects when taken as a medicine; and in a second instance in such a quantity as to occasion death. The action of the gout-medicine, in some respects at least, seems to be similar to that of the *colchicum*; both at first quicken the pulse, and afterward retard it and cause it to intermit; and this is the case whether the fluid be simply received into the stomach or injected into the veins. When the infusion had been employed in the larger dose, so as to prove fatal to the animal, the stomach and intestines were found in an inflamed state.—This appears to be the sum of all the information; and on this slender basis of facts the author draws the conclusions that the *eau médicinale* is the same substance with the vinous infusion of the *colchicum*, — that these medicines act on the system, through the medium of the circulation, by being absorbed and carried into the blood-vessels,—and, lastly, that, from his experiments and the deductions which he has made from them, 'a material step will be gained in the consideration of diseases, and the modes of treating them.' To not one of these positions can we give our assent, and particularly not to the last of them.

Another point respecting these papers must be considered as yet more reprehensible; viz. that the author ascribes to

Hunter the merit of having first ascertained, by experiment, that medicines retain their specific powers of action when introduced into the circulation. The following is the paragraph in which this claim is asserted:

> 'That medicines can be received into the circulation, and, as soon as they arrive there, produce their effects upon different parts of the body, is proved by experiments made by the late Mr. Hunter, although he had no idea of their being usually carried there before they produce the different actions so well known to follow their exhibition by the mouth. He found that infusions of the following substances, received into the circulation by the jugular vein, immediately produced the same effects which more slowly follow their being taken by the mouth. Infusion of opium brought on drowsiness. Infusion of ipecacuanha, vomiting. Jalap, vomiting and purging. Infusion of rhubarb, a profuse flow of urine. These effects ceased in a few hours, and appeared to have in no respect injured the animal's health.'

It is not necessary to make any long comment on this representation, which every tyro in physiological science must know to be incorrect. One decisive reference will be quite sufficient, and we shall satisfy ourselves with quoting Haller's El. Phys. l. 3. sect. 3. § 7. *et seq.*

On the cutting Diamond. By W. H. Wollaston, M.D. Sec. R.S. — After having observed that no adequate explanation has been given of the remarkable power of the diamond in cutting glass, and that the conditions on which the effect depends had never been duly investigated, Dr. W. proceeds to give the result of his own examination. He learned, on inquiry, that the persons who prepare the instruments for glaziers always use naturally crystallized diamonds, technically called *sparks*; which, it seems, differ from artificially polished specimens in the circumstance of all the surfaces being curved, so that 'the meeting of any two of them presents a curvilinear edge.' In order to effect the division of the glass, it is not necessary to penetrate the surface forcibly, by which means it would be bruized and fractured, while the clean cut required for the division would not be produced, but the intended cut must be tangent to the edge near its extremity. The reason why a clean cut is more effectual, than a fracture formed by forcibly urging the diamond against the glass, is that 'in the one case the force applied to break the glass is dispersed over a space of some extent, and may be diverted from its course; in the other, the whole force is confined successively to the mere points of a mathematical line, which may be conceived the bottom of the fissure, and is directed onward by the facility with which the adhesion of each particle in succession yields to its progress.'

An Account of the Discovery of a Mass of native Iron in Brazil. By A. F. Mornay, Esq. in a Letter to Dr. Wollaston. — Observations and Experiments on the Mass of native Iron found in Brazil. By W. H. Wollaston, M.D. Sec. R.S. — These are very interesting and curious papers: the first giving a minute account of the discovery of a mass of native iron, and of the circumstances respecting its local situation and physical characters; the latter containing an examination of its composition, in which the usual skill and dexterity of the analyst are displayed to much advantage. It was discovered in the year 1784 by an individual who was employed in attending cattle, and was observed by him to be totally different in its nature from any of the neighbouring minerals; and, from the idea that it was metallic, and probably contained the precious metals, an attempt was made to remove it, but without success. Mr. Mornay found it still lying on the carriage on which it had been placed twenty-five years before, and had therefore an excellent opportunity of examining every part of it. He took a correct outline of its shape; and, with respect to its size and weight, he informs us that

'It is about seven feet long, four feet wide, and two feet in thickness, besides a sort of foot on which it now stands, of about six inches in height. The solid contents, however, cannot be inferred correctly from these dimensions, since the broad part is hollowed out underneath very considerably. After making due allowance for the cavities, I estimated, on the spot, the solid contents of the whole mass to be at least 28 cubic feet, which at 500lb. will make its weight to be 14,000lbs.'

The upper part is of a brownish black colour; the lower was covered with a ferruginous rust; and it has several cavities in it, some of which contained fragments of quartzose stones. Immediately under the outside coating, or rust, the mass exhibits a bright metallic appearance; it gives sparks when struck with a steel; it becomes luminous by friction; and it is magnetic.

We transcribe the very neat and ingenious mode which Dr. Wollaston adopted for detecting the nickel which this mass was suspected to contain.

'Having filed from my specimen as much as I judged sufficient for my purpose, (which need not exceed $\frac{1}{100}$ of a grain,) I dissolved it in a drop of nitric acid, and then evaporated the solution to dryness. A drop or two of pure ammonia was then added to the dried residuum, and gently warmed upon it in order to dissolve any nickel that might be present. The transparent part of the fluid was then led by the end of a rod of glass to a small distance from the remaining oxide of iron, and the addition of triple prussiate of potash immediately detected the presence of nickel by the appearance of a milky cloud, which was not discernible by the same means from a similar quantity of common wrought iron tried at the same time.'

Dr. W. afterward ascertained the absolute quantity of nickel, which he found to be four per cent.; while in the oxydated crust, taken from the spot on which the mass lay before it was removed, the quantity of nickel was only 3.06 per cent., in consequence of the additional weight which the alloy acquired by oxydation. The Doctor remarks that, 'from the presence of nickel in this mass, we cannot but regard it as having the same meteoric origin with the various other specimens that have before been found.'

On Ice found at the Bottom of Rivers. By T. A. Knight, Esq. F.R.S. — Mr. Knight here gives an account of the facts which he observed on the subject in the river Teme in Herefordshire. After an intensely cold night, but when no ice was formed on the surface of the water,

> 'The stones in the rocky bed of the river appeared to be covered over with frozen matter, which reflected a kind of silvery whiteness, and which, upon examination, I found to consist of numerous frozen spicula crossing each other in every direction, as in snow; but not having any where, except very near the shore, assumed the state of firm compact ice. The river was not, at this time, frozen over in any part; but the temperature of the water was obviously at the freezing point, for small pieces of ice had every where formed upon it in its more stagnant parts near the shores; and upon a mill-pond, just above the shallow streams, (in the bottom of which I had observed the ice,) I noticed millions of little frozen spicula floating upon the water. At the end of this mill-pond, the water fell over a low weir, and entered a narrow channel, where its course was obstructed by points of rock and large stones. By these, numerous eddies and gyrations were occasioned, which apparently drew the floating spicula under water; and I found the frozen matter to accumulate much more abundantly upon such parts of the stones as stood opposed to the current, where that was not very rapid, below the little falls, or very rapid parts of the river.'

Mr. K. conceives that the accumulation of spiculæ, which constituted the ice in the Teme, could not produce it in a slow stream; and that therefore, if ice be ever found in such situations, it must be derived from another source.

On the Action of detached Leaves of Plants. By the Same. — The object of this paper is to shew that a fluid, similar to true sap, actually descends through the leaf-stalks of plants; and thus to complete the author's hypothesis that the sap is elaborated, or acquires its specific properties, in the leaves. In order to prove this fact, portions of the bark of a vinetwig were detached from all communication, except with the leaf; and it was found that, under these circumstances, the bark increased in size. It was also discovered that the leaves of the potatoe, when planted in the earth, formed at their base a quantity of matter similar in its nature to the tuber of the plant, which must have been generated in the leaf. Experiments of a similar kind were tried with the leaves of mint; and it appeared that, when the leaves of a vine-branch were immersed in water, the shoot to which they belonged continued its growth. The exact course, by which the fluid thus elaborated is conveyed into the different parts of the plant, is not easily to be detected: but the author thinks that we can have no doubt of the actual passage of the sap from the mature to the young leaves and the fruit, because if the former be destroyed the growth of the latter immediately ceases.

On the Manufacture of the Sulphate of Magnesia at Monte della Guardia, near Genoa. By H. Holland, M.D. F.R.S.—The place at which this manufacture is produced is about eight miles N.W. of Genoa, forming one of the highest points of the chain of the Appennines that lie contiguous to the coast. The mountain consists principally of primitive slate, with a mixture of marble and serpentine; and a considerable quantity of transition and secondary lime-stone, with some partial deposits of sand-stone and coal. Having described the aspect and general features of the district, the author informs us that the original object of the works was to procure copper and iron pyrites: but the formation of the crystals of sulphate of magnesia, during the process, gradually changed the views of the proprietors. The operation by which the salt is separated is this. The pyrites is roasted, and then exposed in heaps to the atmosphere, when small crystals of sulphate of magnesia effloresce on the surface. These are collected and lixiviated with water, and made to filtrate through alternate layers of sand and straw. The filtered fluid contains the sulphurets of iron and copper, as well as that of magnesia; and, to separate the latter, the milk of lime is added, which forms sulphate of lime, and subsides together with the oxyds of the metals. It is magnesian lime-stone which is employed for this purpose, as being supposed to afford a larger product than the common lime: but Dr. Holland doubts the reality of this alleged fact.

On the Formation of Fat in the Intestine of the Tadpole, an on the Use of the Yelk in the Formation of the Embryo in th Egg. By Sir Ev. Home, Bart. V.P.R.S.—We have here detail of the progressive changes which the common tadpol experiences, until it becomes converted into a perfect frog; a

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likewise of the corresponding changes in the state of the Surinam frog, the *rana paradoxica.* It is found that the intestines of the animals, in their state of tadpoles, contain no oil or fat, but that this substance appears when their metamorphosis is completed; and, as the intestinal canal of the tadpole is excessively long, Sir Everard concludes 'that such a deposit of fat is necessary to the metamorphosis of a tadpole into a frog, and that such unusual length of intestine is required to admit of so large a quantity of fat being formed in so short a time, and therefore that the intestine is the laboratory in which the fat is formed.'

From some comparative analyses by Mr. Hatchett and Mr. Brande, we learn that the yolk of the egg contains a quantity of oil, mixed with albumen, but that the spawn of frogs includes no oil. It is, however, conceived that the presence of oil is essential to the formation of perfect bone; so that those animals, whose ova are without this substance, must be supplied with some apparatus by which it can afterward be produced. — Although the facts and observations in this paper are not without their value, we think that the train of reasoning employed is vague and inaccurate, and that the hypothesis brought forwards is not established.

On the Structure of the crystalline Lens in Fishes and Quadrupeds, as ascertained by its Action on polarized Light. By David Brewster, LL.D. F.R.S. London and Edinburgh.—It is observed by Dr. Brewster that no subject has been more frequently investigated than the structure and functions of the eye: yet he thinks that none has less repaid the pains that have been bestowed on it. We should be disposed to controvert this statement, were not we able to employ our time more usefully in relating the important facts which Dr. Brewster has himself ascertained on the question. By a train of well-directed experiments, in which he applied his former discoveries on the polarization of light to detect the structure of the crystalline, he was led to draw an accurate conclusion respecting this point. He plunged the lens into a hollow parallelopiped of glass, filled with Canada balsam, when he found 'a regular optical figure varying its shape during the revolution of the crystalline.' The optical appearances, that presented themselves by placing the body in different positions, are all carefully detailed; and, by comparing them with the effects produced on light by different bodies of a known consistence and structure, it is ascertained '*that the central nucleus and the external coat are in a state of dilatation, while the intermediate coats are in a state of contraction, and that these opposite states are not dependent upon each other as* *in crystallized glass.'* Dr. B. farther concludes that 'the structure of the crystalline lens in fishes is not symmetrical, as has hitherto been supposed, consisting merely of a number of coats of different densities; but it has a distinct relation to that diameter of the sphere which is the axis of vision.' He deems it probable that the final cause of this peculiar structure is to correct the spherical aberration.

Some farther Account of the fossil Remains of an Animal, of which a Description was given to the Society in 1814. By Sir Ev. Home, Bart. V.P.R.S. — The animal in question was found at Lyme, in the summer of 1814, and was dug out of the cliff on the beach. From the parts which have been obtained, it seems evidently to have been a fish, but of a nondescript genus; thus affording an additional evidence of the general fact, that a race of animals lived on the earth in some of its former states that were different from any which now exist on it.

Farther Observations on the Feet of Animals whose progressive Motion can be carried on against Gravity. By the Same. — Mr. Bauer examined the feet of these animals with high magnifiers, and has given drawings of the appearances which he saw, whence we learn very fully the nature of their mechanism. The toes of the different kinds of flies are furnished with suckers, connected with muscles under the power of the will, which vary both in their form and number in different species, but which all agree in the mode of their operation. The paper concludes with an account of a peculiar apparatus, like a cushion, attached to the feet of certain animals that leap to great distances, for the purpose of diminishing the shock which they would otherwise experience when they alight on the ground.

MATHEMATICS.

An Essay towards the Calculus of Functions, Part II. By C. Babbage, Esq. — At the conclusion of his former paper, Mr. B. gave us reason to expect some farther communications from him relative to his calculus of functions. In the preceding memoir, his views were principally directed towards the solution of functional equations containing only one variable: but it appears that subsequent inquiries led him to several new methods, and to the resolution of functional equations of a much more complicated form; which, he says, has convinced him of the importance of the calculus, particularly as an instrument of discovery in the more difficult branches of analysis.

'Nor is it only in the recesses of this abstract science that its advantages will be felt: it is peculiarly adapted to the discovery of those laws of action by which one particle of matter attracts or repels another of the same or of a different species; consequently, it may be applied to every branch of natural philosophy, where the object is to discover, by calculation from the results of experiment, the laws which regulate the action of the ultimate particles of bodies. To the accomplishment of these desirable purposes it must be confessed that it is in its present state unequal; but should the labours of future enquirers give to it that perfection, which other methods of investigation have attained, it is not too much to hope, that its maturer age shall unveil the hidden laws which govern the phenomena of magnetic, electric, or even of chemical action.'

Without entertaining ideas so sanguine as those of Mr. Babbage on this subject, we can perceive that an immense advantage would be gained, and an almost indefinite extent given to the analytical sciences, if the calculus to which he here alludes could be brought to perfection: but, unfortunately, we see little prospect of this being effected. Mr. B.'s two memoirs occupy a considerable number of pages, and we must say that few advances are made towards the completion of his views. We think that, by this time, he must be well aware of the great difference between forming a project and carrying it into execution; and he must have discovered that it is one thing to be convinced of the utility of a calculus, and another to reduce it to a manageable shape, to fix its limits, and to investigate and establish its rules.

In our remarks on this gentleman's former paper, we expressed some apprehension of a complicated notation and an artificial solution; and we conceive that no person, who looks even slightly at the pages of the present article, will say that our apprehensions were groundless. Every case seems to require distinct symbols; and new characters start up in nearly every problem, with which the mind becomes bewildered, embarrassed, and fatigued. If any tolerably simple means could have been devised for the solution of problems of the kind proposed by Mr. B., it would, as we before observed, have been an important improvement in analysis; and we were willing to entertain hopes when we reported his last paper, that in the present article, which was then promised, we should have seen a direct application of his calculus to the solution of some simple and obvious examples: but we do not think that those which are given can be considered as falling under this class. Of the problems, the second is perhaps the simplest, as well as the nearest in character to those in the former memoir; and it may therefore be understood by those who have attended to the definitions there given. We consequently select it for the perusal of our readers:

‘ Given the same equation

$$\psi(x,y)=\psi(\alpha x,\beta y)$$

‘ Suppose one particular solution of this equation is known, let it be $f(x,y)$,
then take $\psi(x,y)=\varphi f(x,y)$, φ being perfectly arbitrary, and the given equation becomes $\varphi f(x,y)=\varphi f(\alpha x,\beta y)$,
which is evidently satisfied since $f(x,y)=f(\alpha x,\beta y)$ by the hypothesis.

Ex. 1. Let $\psi(x,y)=\psi\left(x^n,y^{\frac{1}{n}}\right)$
one particular solution of this equation is $f(x,y)=x^{\log.y}$
hence the general solution is

$$\psi(x,y)=\varphi\left(x^{\log.y}\right)$$

Ex. 2. Given the equation $\psi(x,y)=\psi(x^n,y^n)$ a particular case is $f(x,y)=\frac{\log.x}{\log.y}$, hence the general solution is

$$\psi(x,y)=\varphi\left(\frac{\log.x}{\log.y}\right)$$

Ex. 3. Given the equation $\psi(x,y)=\psi(x^n,y^m)$
In order to get a particular case, let us put

$$f(x,y)=\log.^2x+a\log.^2y$$

by substituting this value we shall find that it is a particular solution of the equation, if $a=-\frac{\log.n}{\log.m}$,
hence the general solution of the equation is

$$\psi(x,y)=\varphi\left(\log.^2x-\frac{\log.n}{\log.m}\log.^2y\right)=\varphi\left(\log.\frac{\log.x}{(\log.y)^{\frac{\log.n}{\log.m}}}\right)$$

or changing the value of φ it becomes

$$\psi(x,y)=\varphi\left(\frac{\log.x}{\log.y)}\;\frac{\log.m}{\log.n}\right)$$

If $n=m$ we have $\psi(x,y)=\varphi\left(\frac{\log.x}{\log.y}\right)$ as in the last example, and if $m=\frac{1}{n}$ we have the same solution as in the first.’

In these examples, it will be observed that one case is always supposed known, by which means it appears to us that the greatest part of the difficulty is avoided; it is sufficiently obvious, when pointed out, that in example 1. $f(x,y)=x^{\log.y}$; and in example 2. $f(x,y)=\frac{\log.x}{\log.y}$ &c.: but how should we arrive at this conclusion if the case had not been exhibited? It is true that we might by chance have stumbled on the solution: but the matter required is a direct process, which Mr. Babbage does not appear to have acquired.

A New Demonstration of the binomial Theorem. By Thomas Knight, Esq. — The author begins this memoir by observing that

'It is somewhat remarkable that, amongst the various and far-fetched methods and artifices by which the binomial theorem has been obtained, no one should once have thought of the only course which seems obvious and natural. The equation $(a + x)_m \times (a + y)^m = \left\{(a + x)\ (a + y)\right\}^m$ expresses the general property of powers, whether m be positive or negative, whole or fractional; and from this equation, without the help of any artifice, the series in question is deduced.

'Some investigations have been found fault with, as drawn from principles allied to the method of fluxions; whilst, on the other hand, a demonstration, taken from the "*Théorie des Fonctions,*" has been represented as perfect; but I cannot help thinking that it is as much connected with the fluxional calculus as any of the rest; for it seems to make no difference whether, in $(a + x)^m$ we substitute $x + u$ for x, and take the co-efficient of u, or substitute $x + \dot{x}$, and take the co-efficient of $\dot{x}$. The former substitution was made because it was *known* to be equivalent to the other, and has so little apparent connection with the subject, that a student would hardly understand why it was made. The demonstration of M. La Croix in the Introduction to his "Calcul Différentiel," is liable of course to the same objection. If we multiply $a + x$, continually, first by itself, and then by the powers successively arising, we easily see that the second term of each succeeding product is of the form $na^{n-1}x$, n being the exponent of the power: this does not require a more formal proof, and I assume it in what follows. Nor is it more difficult to perceive, that, generally m being positive or negative, whole or fractional, the following form may be assumed.

$$(a + x)^m = a^m + {}'Aa^{m-1}x + {}''Aa^{m-2}x^2 + {}'''Aa^{m-3}x^3 +$$

where $'A$, $''A$, $'''A$, &c. are expressions depending on m alone.'

In the same manner,

$$(a + y)^m = a^m + {}'Aa^{m-1}y + \&c.$$

and therefore, by comparing $(a + x)^m \times (a + y)^m$, with $(a^2 + ax + ay + xy)^m$ or with $a^m\ (a + x + \pi y)^m$, by first making $\pi = 1 + \frac{x}{a}$, and retaining only the first power of y in both expansions, the forms or values of the co-efficients $'A$, $''A$, &c. become determined.

We have only to observe that the difference between this investigation, and that which has been given by Manning, Woodhouse, and Bonnycastle, and particularly that of Mr. Spence, appears to us too small to justify Mr. Knight in calling it 'a *new* demonstration of the binomial theorem.'

On the Fluents of Irrational Functions. By E. F. Bromhead, Esq. M A. — This is an attempt to generalize and systematize the methods of determining the fluents of irrational functions; and to shew that all known forms result from other forms of the greatest extent, not depending on particular functions, but on the properties of all rational functions whatever.

We must beg, however, to refrain from giving any specimen of the author's operations; because, with all the advantages derived from Mr. Bromhead's notes and his numerous examples, we are still doubtful whether we exactly understand what it is that he intends to perform; and at all events we are certain that it would be useless to attempt to illustrate it in the space within which it is necessary for us to confine this article.

We have at different times endeavoured to expose the absurdity of perpetually introducing new symbols, new terms, and new significations of old terms, which seems to be the principal aim of some of our modern analysts: but in no instance have we seen it carried to so great a length as in the papers which we have just examined.

Art. V. *Redemption;* a Poem in Twenty Books. By George Woodley, Author of "The Church-Yard," and other Poems. 2 Vols. 8vo. 16s. Boards. Law and Whittaker. 1816.

We wish most cordially that it were possible to devise some legitimate means of putting an effectual stop to such libels on our age and country, as are constituted by the poem of 'Redemption,' and by innumerable others of the same poetically prosaic and impiously pious description. What earthly purpose can be answered by works which only serve to waste time, money, and all other good things, we cannot conceive: but when, to these indefensible objects, is added the seemingly studied purpose of degrading the Bible to the level of a prolix and vulgar Christmas carol, it would be difficult to describe our mingled feelings. Happily for our readers and for ourselves, we need not attempt so unpleasing a task, since half-a-dozen lines, selected from any portion of either of these closely printed volumes, will speak for themselves: but we shall make conviction doubly clear by a fuller trial.

To write on so dignified and so sublime a subject, as that which the present author has chosen, would assuredly be a task that the very noblest of poets could not undertake without fear and trembling. How inconceivable therefore must be the *vanity*, or at least how overwhelming the self-delusion, of the gentleman before us; who, (being in fact unable to indite a sonnet on a daisy,) without preface or apology, attempts a theme fit only for Milton, and in which a Milton confessedly did not succeed!

Nothing, however, — no genius, human or divine, — could sanction such adaptations of the Holy Scriptures to the purposes of poetry as are here throughout observable. The language of the Bible is constantly profaned by the most injudicious quotation, and interwoven with doggrel and vulgarity. To see these time-honoured expressions robbed of all their native and beautiful simplicity, and, like the fragments of marble and brilliant pieces of stone in some of our northern edifices, mixed up with base earth and rubbish, is beyond human patience. To all authors, indeed, whether young or old, dull or vivacious, honoured or neglected, with the earnestness of friends and the authority of advisers we should say, Approach the Bible with reverence: neither quote it flippantly nor adopt it thoughtlessly to your own frame of expression; — and, instead of twisting and forcing things much too sacred for such purposes into your poor and paltry versification, read the impressive admonitions which this insulted book directs to you above all other offenders, "Be not wise in your own conceit:" "Throw not pearls before swine," — such swine as your own unworthy Muses!

We subjoin a string of casual selections to illustrate and to vindicate our unmitigated condemnation of these volumes:

> 'Then, taking from the multitude the twelve,
> (First, Simon Cephas Peter, — Cephas call'd
> From that firm rock whereon he built his faith,
> The Rock of Ages! which nor change of time,
> Nor rage of man, nor all the pow'rs of hell
> Were able to withstand; — his brother next,
> Andrew the fisherman; — then James and John,
> The sons of Zebedee, and fitly stil'd
> The sons of Thunder, for their pious warmth,
> And all-prevailing eloquential pow'ers; —
> Philip, who erst the Baptist's steps had trac'd,
> But left him when he heard the Saviour's name; —
> Bartholomew, (Nathaniel better call'd)
> An Israelite indeed, devoid of guile; —
> Thomas, call'd Didymus, a humble man; —
> Matthew the publican, Alphæus' son,

Who left a gainful trade to follow Christ; —
The younger James; — Jude, whose epistle lives
In all the churches; — Simon, fam'd for zeal;
(The latter three united in the bands
Of love fraternal, to Cleophas born;) —
And Judas sprung from Kerioth, whence the name
Iscariot, which discriminated well
His person from Cleophas' faithful son:
Jesus with apostolic honours crown'd
Their long attendance on His varied walks,
Pow'r to expel each foul and filthy fiend,
And ev'ry raging malady to heal,
He gave to all: then, sending them abroad
To preach His Gospel to their darken'd race,
He these instructions for their conduct fram'd.'

Worse, still worse, ensues:

'Whilst the disciples, — whom excess of joy
Scarcely permitted to receive the truth, —
With curious eye, and busy hands, ran o'er
The Saviour's form, and felt the word of life;
To dissipate each latent doubt that lurk'd
Within their wond'ring breasts, He ask'd for meat;
And, openly before them all, partook
With ardent appetite their little store.
Then all their fears were conquer'd, and their hearts
Bounded with joy, when thus such ample proof
Tactile and ocular their Master gave,
To seal their hope and make their credence sure.'

In page 157. we have the following happy boldness:

'To fix their credence *on a daring lie.*'

P. 154. the judicious introduction of

'Outrages, insults, *flagellation*, scorn.'

P. 90. Vol. ii.

'I dare foretell that he will do our cause
Essential service, if *our twigs he lim'd*
With gold and honours.'

Ibid.

'But t'was his *pers'nal* poverty alone.'

The sixteenth book opens thus:

'Oh that my eyes were two unfailing springs
Of sympathizing self-condemning tears!'

Without meaning any real misfortune to Mr. Woodley, we unite in this sensible wish, since there might then be some chance either that his eyes would be too dim to allow of any more poetical effusions, or at least that the '*unfailing*' tears would not fail to blot out some of the sins against the public which he has here committed.

At page 7. of vol. i. we have a string of exclamations indeed:

' Death foiled — *Hell balked* — The gates of bliss display'd
To all believers!' &c. &c. &c.

P. 67. Ibid.

—— ' to search
With strictest *acc'racy* and *sharpest scent*
The *infant fry* of Judah!'

P. 125. We behold the multitude, or the bay,

' Indented in a semilunar curve.'

P. 181.

' Inevitable, or necessarily!'

which perhaps exhibits the most remarkable instance of mock versification that even the nineteenth century, fruitful as it has already been in such metrical monsters, has produced.

Art. VI. *The Rise and Progress of Sunday Schools;* a Poem, in Three Cantos; in which is shewn, the moral Condition of the Poor previous to their Establishment; the Origin of those Institutions, and their present flourishing State; together with a general View of the Benefits resulting from their Influence on the Habits of the Poor, and the consequent Advantages to Society at large. By George Mac Carthy, Junior, Surgeon, Halstead, Essex. 8vo. pp. 62. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1816.

In this ample title-page, the author has so completely developed the object of his little volume, that we need not say another word on that head; and, though not in point of taste yet in point of trouble, we are sometimes obliged to writers who will thus abridge the dry labour of analysis or abstract for their critics, by giving them an epitome of their work even before they have begun to read it. The only subsequent duty of this kind, which such critics have then to discharge, is to examine whether these things be so; and whether the author really furnishes that entertainment which his bill of fare held out to expectation. We are happy in being able to bear witness to the fidelity of Mr. Mac Carthy in this respect; although we must leave our readers to decide the previous question,

question as to the nature of the component parts of that banquet, that olio of religious food, which is here offered to their appetites. Nothing can be better meant than this publication; and nothing can be more worthy of the highest and most unqualified panegyric than its subject. We believe that the institution of Sunday-Schools in this country has done more good than any one measure of domestic policy that has been adopted by the collective wisdom of our legislature for centuries past; — and this institution, as it is well known, arose originally from the patriotic exertions of one individual, the excellent Mr. Raikes of Gloucester. To his memory, the little work before us affords another grateful tribute; and indeed to the whole theme it presents the ever-welcome offering of sincere and earnest admiration. Here, however, we must stop in *our* measure of praise; and we must change our tone into an equally strong note of censure, when we consider the abuse of the press and the degradation of the very name of poetry which this volume effects. It has become lamentably general to imagine that the cadence which is dinned into our ears by the very nurses and pedagogues of our infancy, that the language even of the female half of those worthy personages, and a little self-conceit, are enough to qualify for the high office and character of poets! We do indeed grant, and it is with shame and sorrow that we grant it, that many men of genius of this latter day, from Cowper downwards, have so debased and vulgarized the language of verse, that it is an easy and venial mistake for any worthy tallow-chandler or dealer in small wares to commit, that *he* too may be a poet! — "*Quid vetat et nosmet*" might be said by every man-milliner in the kingdom, and said with justice, after the prosaic expression and the hobbling versification of large portions of our *most approved* writings. That which was burlesqued in Lexiphanes, the facility of the composition of blank verse, might now with equal justice be applied to rhyme: but it is to blank verse that we also now wish to confine the attention of our readers, and of the present author's readers, for one moment. No news-paper, no Sunday-news-paper, put into unpremeditated and immediate blank verse, by any one of the numerous English improvisatori now existing, could be less truly poetical than the Sunday-School strains of the well-meaning but much mistaken Mr. Mac Carthy. The following good-humoured *exposé* of the first consequences of Mr. Raikes's success will perhaps be as fair an example of the sort of conversation-verse which we have been endeavouring to describe, as any that we could select.

> 'Informing then the clergy whom he knew,
> Of this successful issue of his schemes,
> He soon their friendly influence obtain'd,
> And kind co-operation in the work.
> For now the sev'ral parishes around
> Perceiv'd the beauties of this new design,
> And Sunday-Schools with peaceful sway control'd
> The sev'ral parts of this capacious town.
> Whence, widely spreading o'er the British land,
> From place to place, they rapidly advance.
> To tell of which and their important ends,
> Will in succeeding pages be my theme.'

The next eloquent and harmonious passage to which we would direct our readers, and which doubtless was transcribed from some Weekly Messenger or Mercury —

"*Mercurî, facunde nepos Atlantis!*"

of the day, occurs at p. 25.:

> 'Instruction now her friendly guidance gave
> To eighteen hundred of the youths of Leeds,
> Thro' the sweet medium of the Sunday-Schools;
> And Stockport next a school did quickly raise,
> Which, since increasing to a large extent,
> Can boast the favour of a royal breast, —
> The patronage of Kent's illustrious Duke.'

We conclude with the first lines of the last 'Invocation:'

> 'O blessed God! who kindly to the heart
> Of Gloucester's lov'd philanthropist, in soft
> Propitious whispers spake, when first he made
> Successful trial of a Sunday-School! —
> Who smiledst with benignity supreme
> On all his labours, and hast smil'd no less
> On those who in this vineyard since have toil'd,
> And nurs'd the tender vines thy hand did plant!
> O! if thy pleasure be, regard them still —
> Shine with thy brightest beams upon the work,
> And let the genial dew-drops of thy grace,
> And show'rs of favour on their heads descend.'

This is certainly something better; and we heartily say Amen to the sentiment.

The notes contain some interesting extracts from the Sunday-School Repository: — but *do, do,* Mr. Mac Carthy, forswear the *use* of poetry!

Art. VII. *A Historical Account, interspersed with biographical Anecdotes, of the House of Saxony*, tracing the Descent of the present Royal and Ducal Branches, and containing a Memoir of the Life of His Serene Highness Leopold George Christian Frederic, Duke of Saxony, Prince of Saxe-Coburg-Saalfeld. Dedicated by Permission to His Royal Highness the Prince Regent of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. By Frederic Shoberl. Embellished with Portraits. 8vo. pp. 196. 7s. 6d. Boards. Ackermann. 1816.

An English subject, to borrow the words of Mr. Gibbon, may be prompted by a just and liberal curiosity to investigate the origin and history of the house of Saxony; which, after an alliance with the daughters of our kings, may be called by the voice of a free people to the legal inheritance of supreme rank. A matrimonial crown has not yet been conferred by parliament on Prince Leopold, whose pedigree and biography are in this volume illustrated: but the hand of royal love may one day aspire to dispense equality of title and power.

From Wittekind, a zealous worshipper and perhaps a lineal descendant of Odin, the house of Saxony endeavours to deduce its parentage. Wittekind was a chieftain of the Angles settled in Westphalia, and headed them in their continual warfare against the Franks, who occupied their south-west frontier, and acknowleged the jurisdiction of Charlemagne. In the year 780, according to the Saxon chronicle, was fought the decisive battle between the Angles and the Franks. Charlemagne prevailed, totally routed the foe near Lipspring, and consecrated their idol-temple at Paderborn to a Christian saint. Many Saxons submitted to baptism: but Wittekind fled for refuge to the Norman king Sigfried, (Schmidt's *Geschichte der Deutschen*, vol. i. p. 407.) and once more renewed the war, assisted by a General named Albion. In 785, however, these chieftains were induced to yield, and both received baptism at Attigni: on which occasion, says the present author, Wittekind exchanged the black horse which he had previously borne on his shield of arms, for a white one, which is still used by the kings of Great Britain as dukes of Brunswick Luneberg.

Wittekind habitually resided at his patrimonial domain of Engern: but he also possessed the castles of Zörbig and Wettin; and, as these descended to Dedo, Count of Wettin, it is inferred that he was the legitimate heir of Wittekind, although the intervening pedigree cannot nominally be traced. In 1048, Dedo was invested with the dignity of Margrave of Meissen, and he died in 1075. It would be worthy of our language and constitution to efface in England the Norman title of *Marquis*, and to restore the Saxon appellation of *Margrave.*

Dedo was succeeded by his nephew Henry, Count of Eulenberg; and he by his cousin Conrad, who in 1127 received from the Emperor Lothair the investiture of the Margraviate of Meissen, and acquired that of Lusatia in 1136 by military achievements. He joined a crusade to Palestine; his piety was invigorated by this approach to the holy sepulchre; and, on his return, finding his bodily strength abated, he determined to assume the religious habit in the convent of Lauterberg. He therefore consecrated his arms at Meissen, divided his worldly property among his five sons, and died in 1157.

Otho, the eldest son of Conrad, began to work the mines at Freyberg in Saxony, and was surnamed the rich, on account of the marked increase of prosperity which this undertaking diffused in his territories. He was succeeded by his brothers Diederich and Henry; then by his sons Albert and Diederich. Henry, the son of the second Diederich, acceded in 1222; and, by a fortunate marriage with the heiress of the house of Thuringen, he added the domains of that landgrave to the previous possessions of the family: he died in 1288. The pedigree of the house of Thuringen is here inserted, pp. 16—36. and forms an entertaining excursion, on account of the anecdotes of Swabian minstrelsy with which it is interspersed.

Albert, son of Henry, was surnamed *the Degenerate*; he married Margaret, daughter of the Emperor Frederic II.: but, having fallen in love with a lady of her train named Cunegonda of Eisenberg, he attempted to have his wife smothered. She, however, discovered the plot, and fled to her father, but died of regret and apprehension. Albert then married his mistress, and diminished the family-domains as much as he could in favour of the children by the second wife. He died in 1314, and was succeeded by four princes of the name of Frederic; the last of whom, called the *sixth* by his old and the *first* by his new subjects, inherited in 1422 the dignity of Elector of Saxony, in consequence of the Ascanian line of these princes having become extinct: he died in 1428.

Frederic the Second was remarked for paternal affection, and suffered his brother William to usurp a dangerous power in the land: he died without issue, and the possessions devolved on Ernest and Albert, two sons of William, who were to govern conjointly as their predecessors had done. This agreement lasted twenty years: but at length a partition was found necessary, and thus originated the still subsisting distinction of the Ernestine and Albertine line of Saxon princes. Ernest died in 1486. Frederic the Third succeeded to him, and in 1502 founded the celebrated university of Wittenberg, the foster-mother of Luther. This elector occasionally received at his table in Schweinitz the professors of that college, and thus was led to take that warm interest in their controversies which prepared him to become the patron of the Reformation, although he outwardly adhered to the Catholic church. His brother John succeeded to him in 1525, and concurred in that protest, dated 1529, which occasioned the Reformers to adopt the designation of Protestants. John Frederic, the eldest son of John, acceded in 1532, and died in 1553 without issue. Of these three princes, engravings are inserted from portraits by Cranach, the correspondent of Luther.

The electoral dignity and territorial dominions of the house of Saxony now passed into the Albertine line, and were transferred to Maurice the son of Duke Henry of Meissen: he was killed in battle near the village of Sivershausen in 1553, and was succeeded by his brother Augustus. This prince married Anna, the daughter of Christian King of Denmark, and attended much to alchemy: so that, as he died rich, it was supposed that he had discovered the philosopher's stone. He was the patron also of agriculture, and 'always carried with him a bag full of the stones and pips of the best kinds of fruits, which he would cause to be planted wherever he went, and thus conferred an essential benefit on posterity.' He died in 1586, and was succeeded by Christian I., who died in 1591, giving place to Christian II., who died in 1611.

John George, a brother of the preceding prince, was the next elector; his son John George II. acceeded to the title in 1656; his grandson, John George III., in 1680; and his great-grandson, John George IV. in 1691. This prince at his birth was declared heir-apparent to the throne of Denmark, was decorated with the English order of the Garter, and died in 1694.

Frederic Augustus I., a brother of the preceding prince, was distinguished for extraordinary personal strength, being able to break a horse-shoe with his hands, or roll up a silver dish like a sheet of paper. He was elected King of Poland in 1697, and conformed on that occasion to the Catholic religion, which has since been professed by his descendants. He died in 1733. His son Frederic Augustus II. espoused a daughter of the Emperor Joseph the First, ascended the Polish throne, and died in 1763. One of his daughters married a king of Spain, and another was wedded to the Dauphin of France; so that the deposed sovereigns Charles IV. and Louis XVI. were his grand-children. His son Frederic Christian survived

The houses of Saxe-Gotha, Saxe-Coburg, Saxe-Meinungen, Saxe-Romhild, Saxe-Eisenberg, Saxe-Hildburghausen, are severally treated, and finally the house of Saxe-Coburg-Saalfeld. We will extract this concluding pedigree, to which the others are only preparatory, but from each of which this stream derives some portion of tributary water.

' *House of Saxe-Coburg-Saalfeld.*

' John Ernest, seventh son of Ernest the Pious, was the founder of this house, originally called Saxe-Saalfeld, till, upon obtaining the principality of Coburg, it assumed the above title.

' Christian Ernest and Francis Josias governed jointly after the death of their father in 1729, till the decease of Christian Ernest, in 1757, left his brother the sole possessor. He died in 1764.

' Ernest Frederic, d. 1800.

' Francis Frederic Anthony, married firstly, in 1776, Ernestina Frederica Sophia, daughter of Duke Ernest Frederic Charles, of Saxe-Hildburghausen, who died in the same year; and secondly in 1777, Augusta Carolina Sophia, daughter of Count Henry XXIV. Reuss. of Ebersdorf, by whom he had issue:

' Ernest Anthony Charles Lewis, the reigning duke born Jan. 2. 1784, succeeded his father, Dec. 3. 1806.

' His brothers and sisters are; —

' Sophia Frederica Carolina Louisa, born Aug. 18. 1778, and married in 1804 to Count Mensdorf, a colonel in the Austrian service.

' Antoinette Ernestina Amelia, born Aug. 19. 1779, married in 1798 to Charles Alexander Frederic, brother to the King of Wirtemberg, a General in the Russian service, and governor of Livonia, Esthonia, and Courland.

' Juliana Henrietta Ulrica, born Sept. 23. 1781, married in 1796 to the Grand-duke Constantine of Russia, when she assumed the name of Anne Feodorowna.

' Ferdinand George Augustus, born March 28. 1785.

' Maria Louisa Victoria, born Aug. 17. 1786, married in 1803 to Prince Emich Charles, of Leiningen, by whom she has been left a widow.

' Leopold George Christian Frederic, born Dec. 16. 1790, married May 2. 1816, to her Royal Highness the Princess Charlotte of Wales.'

To the genealogical history succeeds a lively biographical memoir, from which also we shall select some information.

' We have seen that all the ducal houses of Saxony are branches of the elder or Ernestine line, which, without regard to primogeniture, long retained the custom of dividing the possessions left by the father among all his sons. In process of time, however, the law of primogeniture began to be adopted, but it was not introduced into the house of Saxe-Coburg till the reign of Francis Josias, in the middle of the eighteenth century.

'This prince, the great grandfather of the reigning duke, was respected by his neighbours as a man of the highest integrity, and beloved by his subjects as an excellent sovereign. These qualities caused him to be intrusted with the guardianship of some of the princes of the kindred houses of Saxony during their minority. He had four sons. The eldest, who succeeded him, married the Princess Sophie Antoinette, sister to the celebrated Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick, as also to the Queen of Denmark, to the consort of Frederic the Great, and to the grandmother of the present King of Prussia. By this union the house of Saxe-Coburg-Saalfeld became nearly allied to most of the reigning families in Europe, to which it was not previously related. Its connections were still farther extended by the marriage of the two daughters of this prince, the elder, Sophia, to the Duke of Mecklenburg Schwerin, (by whom she was mother to the present duke,) and the younger, Amelia, to Alexander, Margrave of Brandenburg-Anspach and Bayreuth.

'The three younger sons of Duke Francis Josias devoted themselves to the profession of arms. Prince Christian, the elder, entered into the Austrian service, and during the seven years' war attained to considerable military distinctions, when ill health compelled him to quit the army and return to Coburg.

'Adolphus, the third son, fell whilst very young, as colonel of a Saxon regiment of carbineers in the first Silesian war.

'The fourth and youngest of these brothers was Frederic Josias, the celebrated commander of the allied armies at the commencement of the war of the French revolution. He entered at the beginning of the seven years' war into the Austrian service. Though then very young, the Empress-queen, Maria Theresa, intrusted him with the command of the Anspach regiment of cuirassiers. He signalized himself by his courage in various engagements, and was wounded in the battle of Collin. Highly esteemed by the imperial court for his mild amiable character, his valour, probity, and talents, he soon arrived at promotions and honours. Both in Gallicia and Hungary, where he was invested with the chief military command, an appointment of very great importance, he was beloved and respected; indeed his memory is still revered by the Hungarians, who have not forgotten the protection which he afforded, to the utmost of his power, to the numerous Protestants resident in that country. When the Emperor Joseph II. commenced the last Turkish war, he assembled a particularly fine army, of near 100,000 men, and directed his efforts to the reduction of Belgrade. This army was commanded under the Emperor, by Field-marshal Laudohn. The Prince of Coburg was placed at the head of a corps of 18,000 men, destined partly to cover the grand army, and partly to make a diversion in Wallachia and Moldavia, by which also it was designed to establish a communication with the Russians, whose main force was engaged with Oczakow, and some other fortresses. At the same time that the Prince was detached with his corps from the Austrian grand army, general Suworoff was detached with the like views from the Russian. The service upon which these two distinguished commanders were sent soon produced an intimate friendship between them, which death alone interrupted. To them belongs the glory of the highly brilliant campaign which brought the war to such a speedy termination. Continually united in their operations, they reduced the whole of Moldavia and Wallachia, and repeatedly vanquished the army of the Grand-vizier, though four times as strong as their own. The most decisive of these victories occurred at Focksan and Martinestie. While Coburg and Suworoff were thus gaining victory after victory, and deciding the issue of the war, the imperial grand army had uselessly lost the flower of its troops in unimportant actions, and by disease; and was therefore necessitated to relinquish the honour of the campaign to Prince Frederic Josias alone. The Emporor then appointed the Prince to conduct the negotiations for peace with the Porte, and rewarded his services with the rank of field-marshal and the grand cross of the order of Maria Theresa, instituted for military merit,—a distinction the more valuable on account of the difficulty of earning it, and the sparing hand with which it is conferred.

'About this time commenced the war of the French revolution and the troubles in the Netherlands. Leopold, who had now ascended the imperial throne, summoned the Prince of Coburg to the chief command of the allied army in the Netherlands, on which occasion the Prince was also nominated field-marshal of the empire. With this appointment no commander except the Archduke Charles alone has since been invested. The campaign of the Prince, though obstructed by various difficulties, partly thrown in the way by the court of Vienna itself, was nevertheless attended with the best success against the French. The young Emperor Francis II. honoured the Prince with his confidence in a high degree; at the same time the latter found means to keep up the best understanding with the rest of the allies—a circumstance universally acknowledged at the time, and which must still be remembered by the Duke of York, and many English officers under his command.

'The victory of Neerwinden, the reduction of Valenciennes, and other achievements of Prince Frederic, are too well known to need recapitulation. The Emperor Francis, who quitted the army about this period, rewarded him with the diamond-star of the order of Maria Theresa, which had been last worn by the renowned Laudohn.

'How terrible the name of Prince Frederic had become to the republican French, is evinced by the well-known form of accusation: *Complice de Pitt et Coburg*—a form which sealed the doom of thousands of unfortunate victims, and in which democracy associated together the names of those whom it considered as its two most dangerous enemies.'

From this truly anti-gallican stock descends the illustrious personage whose own achievements are related in the remaining part of the memoir; the details are too many for our necessarily narrow limits: but the concluding portrait well deserves to be exhibited to national attention.

> ' Though the preceding biographical notices would, without any further observations, furnish the attentive observer with a correct outline of this Prince's character, yet the delineation of his moral qualities is wanting to complete a most attractive and interesting picture.
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> ' In his early youth, he manifested an excellent understanding and a tender and a benevolent heart. As he advanced in years he displayed a strong attachment to literary and scientific pursuits, and even at that time all his actions were marked with dignified gravity and unusual moderation. His propensity to study was seconded by the efforts of an excellent instructor, and as he remained a stranger to all those dissipations with which persons of his age and rank are commonly indulged, his attainments, so early as his fifteenth year, were very extensive. His extraordinary capacity particularly unfolded itself in the study of the languages, history, mathematics, botany, music, and drawing, in which last he has made a proficiency that would be creditable to a professor.
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> ' The vicissitudes which he was so early destined to experience, seem only to have contributed to preserve the purity of his morals; and they have certainly had a most powerful influence in the developement of that rare moderation, that ardent love of justice, and that manly firmness which are the predominant traits in the character of this Prince.
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> ' Necessitated in like manner at so early an age to attend to a variety of diplomatic business, he acquired partly in this school, and partly in his extensive travels, a thorough knowledge of men in all their relations; and though his experience has not always been of the most agreeable species, still it has not been able to warp the kindness and benevolence of his nature.'

This volume may be read with amusement and consulted with utility: the dryness of genealogical detail being frequently enlivened by anecdotes, characteristic of the times in which the several personages flourished. Perhaps, however, something of credulity marks the selection: ghost-stories, and other marvellous relations, from which philosophical criticism would turn aside, being indulgently inserted: but the traditional fables, the grandmother's hearsays, of a family, will often assist the poet, and especially the dramatist, to give interest and costume to the themes which he chuses to celebrate.

An elegant portrait of the hero is prefixed, besides the engravings already mentioned.

Art. VIII. *The History of the Small-pox.* By James Moore, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons of London, Surgeon of the Second Regiment of Life Guards, and Director of the National Vaccine Establishment. 8vo. pp. 320. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co.

In a dedication to Dr. Jenner, the author observes that his zeal for vaccination has induced him to write the history of the small-pox, in order that the public may have an opportunity of contrasting its baneful effects with the benign consequences of cow-pox. As he has already appeared as one of the most successful defenders of the latter disease, we admit the propriety of the office which he has now assumed; and we agree with him in thinking that this volume will tend to promote the object which he proposes to himself. The first four chapters are purely historical, containing a discussion concerning the origin of the disease, and an account of the manner in which it spread over the different parts of the globe, after its unequivocal appearance in Arabia in the seventh century. Before this period, it seems not to have been known either in Europe or in Africa, nor in the western parts of Asia; since the different expressions, which some learned men have supposed to refer to small-pox, are very vague and indeterminate; while, on the other hand, we may venture to assert that the actual prevalence of such a disease must have been recognized by clear marks of distinction, and been too notorious to leave any doubt of its existence.

On searching, however, into the remote annals of the Chinese history, some reason appears for supposing that the small-pox has been long known in that extensive empire, and in the neighbouring islands of Japan. Some old documents are produced, which speak of its existence a great while before the Christian æra, and in which 'a description is given of the fever, the eruption of pustules, their increase, suppuration, flattening, and crusting.' It is farther stated that the practice of inoculation was used in very remote ages, the operation being performed by placing some of the dried purulent matter up the nostrils; and we are also informed that 'in Hindostan, according to the traditions of the Bramins, the small-pox is of immense antiquity.' In India, every thing is veiled in fable; and it requires great skill and consummate caution to develope the truth from the mysteries with which it is intermixed: but we are told that the antient Sanscrit contains several names for the small-pox, and that a goddess was invented whose especial province was to watch over the disease. It would seem, however, that the ravages of small-pox were confined to certain districts of India, or at least were of rare occurrence in those parts which were first invaded by the Europeans; because, when the Dutch and the Portuguese made their original settlements, they were not aware of its having previously existed among the natives; though we may perhaps, in some degree, account for this fact by the consideration that the disposition and habits of the early inhabitants led them to hold little intercourse with each other, while they were very much secluded from the rest of the world. Mr. Moore attempts to explain the causes which might prevent the communication of the disease from the orientalists to the other countries with which they had occasional connection; and it is rendered probable that the malady would be propagated to the Arabian ports on the Red Sea, which was in fact the situation where it unequivocally appeared, and whence it was disseminated over the western parts of the world.

Notwithstanding the allegorical and mystical transaction in which the fact was concealed, little doubt can be entertained that the small-pox occurred at the siege of Mecca, about the middle of the sixth century; while we have reason for believing that the measles made their appearance at the same time; and, by a singular coincidence, the birth of Mohammed took place in the same year. The widely extended system of warfare, in which the followers of this celebrated impostor were engaged shortly after this period, was well calculated to propagate the infection of these diseases.

'The small-pox and measles certainly burst forth among the Arabs at a period most fatally favourable for their dissemination. For in the year 622, Mahomet began to collect the wandering tribes, whom he led forth inflamed with fanatic fury, and contaminated with disease, against the surrounding nations. The numbers killed by the Arabian scimitars are usually exaggerated, to adorn their victories; but the greater multitudes who silently perished by diseases are rarely noticed.

'After the death of Mahomet, the enthusiasm which he had kindled continued to burn, and his successors, in a few years, conquered Persia and Syria, and spread the small-pox and measles through these extensive countries.'—

'To follow the progress of the small-pox is to proceed with the history of the Arabs, who in the space of thirty years subdued Syria, Egypt, and Persia. And as these conquerors, in their military expeditions, moved in great bodies, and established themselves with their plural wives, children, and slaves, in the subjected countries, they disseminated the small-pox and measles wherever they went. But the love of conquest augments with enjoyment. The Saracens, unsatiated with ravaging the most charming provinces of Asia, were inflamed with the desire of possessing Europe also. Constantinople guarded the northern barrier, whose inhabitants retained the name of Romans, though they durst not encamp without their walls. But by surpassing the Arabians in art, they burnt their fleet with Greek fire, and compelled them to raise the siege. Thus the Mahometan empire was bounded by the Hellespont, and that entrance for the small-pox into Europe was barred up. And this was done so effectually, that it appears by Nonus, a physician who lived at Constantinople in the middle of the 10th century, that the small-pox and measles were unknown even then.

'In spite of this check, the Arabians carried their arms eastward; the small-pox accompanied the Koran, and attacked some of the Saracen monarchs. For three of the early caliphs were pitted with small-pox, *two had a white spot on each of their eyes*, probably from the same cause, and one fell a victim to this disease.'

It will not be necessary for us to accompany the author through his detail of the gradual introduction of the disease into the different parts of Europe: but he has collected many interesting documents on the subject, and has shewn considerable acuteness in the application of the scattered observations of various writers to the object of his work. We shall notice only one circumstance, that it seems to have been the small-pox with which Charles VIII. was attacked, on his expedition for the conquest of Naples at the end of the fifteenth century.

Having now traced the account of the origin and progress of small-pox, we enter, in the fifth chapter, on a detail of the various theories that have been formed, and the plans of treatment that have been successively adopted. The narrative is arranged into periods, the first occupying the time from the appearance of the disease in Arabia to the fifteenth century; the second, from the fifteenth to the middle of the seventeenth century; and afterward the practice adopted by Sydenham and still supported to our own times. During the first of these periods, we do not expect much rational hypothesis or correct reasoning; yet we are indebted to the writers who then flourished, especially the Arabians, for an account of the phænomena of the disease, which is tolerably correct and characteristic; and, if their mode of treatment was not very efficacious, it was on the whole less decidedly bad than that of many of their successors. During the second period, when the theories prevailed which Mr. Moore designates by the title of 'fire, philosophy, and the alexipharmic treatment,' we are compelled to admit that the interference of the medical art must have been injurious. One of the best informed writers of this age was Sennert, who practised at the commencement of the seventeenth century, rejected many of the false doctrines of his predecessors, and discarded much of the astrological and alchemical reasoning which was fashionable among his contemporaries; yet, respecting the management of small-pox, he lays down the most fatal doctrines:

> ‘ Sennert was cautious of bleeding, and averse to the exhibition of purgatives; and painful it is to relate that he considered the great indication was to expel the noxious humour by perspiration.
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> ‘ To accomplish which, he recommended decoctions of figs, and of various seeds and plants supposed to possess sudorific properties. And when these failed, other drugs and compounds, which were termed alexipharmics, were had recourse to. Among these the bezoar, the coral and pearls, though costly, were very innocent: but the mithridate and Venice treacle were efficacious medicines: yet, as their real powers were little understood, it may be doubted if much advantage accrued from their exhibition. He lastly directs “ that while using the above medicines, every attention is to be paid, especially in winter, to hinder the admission of cold air. The patient is therefore to be tended in a warm chamber, and carefully covered up; lest by closing the pores of the skin, the efforts of nature should be impeded, the humors should be repelled, and the matter which ought to be driven out should be retained: from which anxiety, fever, and all the other symptoms would be augmented, to the imminent danger of the patient.” ’

The history of the introduction of inoculation into this country by Lady Mary Wortley Montague, the virulent opposition which it had to encounter, its very slow progress, and the injurious effects which were produced by the influence of false hypotheses, are detailed in an interesting manner. Mr. Moore gives the following account of the nature of the operation, as it was practised about the middle of the last century; premising that a violent controversy had taken place respecting the use of purgatives:

> ‘ The election made by different practitioners of the medicines of this class was various. In America, a combination of calomel and antimony became a favourite composition, and was thence transferred to England. And besides purgatives, emetics, bleeding, blisters, opiates, and nervous drugs, were all in use to combat the fever and convulsive fits, which sometimes ensued after inoculation. It was also the established practice then to confine the patients to their beds, and to encourage perspiration. The sores from inoculation frequently required much attention: they were always painful, and as the discharge was encouraged, they usually remained open during five or six weeks, and often longer.
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> ‘ Inoculation had therefore become a very serious affair: for the preparatory treatment lasted commonly a month, and medical attendance was requisite for five or six weeks longer: and though occasional

occasional disasters were palliated, they could not be wholly concealed. Families, in moderate circumstances, and timid mothers, were not therefore very easily induced to incur the expence and risk of such a process. Consequently, the practice of inoculation, though widely diffused, was in a great measure confined to the opulent. In London, it was more generally practised than elsewhere; and four or five hundred poor people were likewise annually inoculated in the Small-pox Hospital. The practice in Scotland had been resumed at Dumfries in 1733, and was gradually extended to Edinburgh, and to the most remote cities. It appeared from a calculation made by Professor Monro in 1765, that between five and six thousand persons had been inoculated in the whole of Scotland, in thirty-one years; which, on an average, was one hundred and eight annually: and the fatal cases amounted to one in seventy-eight. Nothing therefore could be more vain than the expectations of those who imagined that such a system could ever be universally adopted.'

About this period, a great improvement took place in the method of managing the operation, which was effected in the first instance by the Suttons. Both the disease itself was rendered less dangerous to the individual and the practice was much more extensively diffused: yet a very unfortunate consequence on the general state of society was produced; viz. that, by keeping the contagion always alive, a great number of deaths from small-pox actually ensued:

'The confession that must be made is mortifying to a professional man: for, according to such records as we possess, it appears, that in spite of all medical exertion, the mortality of small-pox had progressively augmented. It has been made evident by calculations from the bills of mortality of the city of London, renowned for medical science, that at the beginning of the eighteenth century, about one-fourteenth part of the inhabitants died of the small-pox. And, during the last thirty years of that century, when the practice in small-pox was highly improved, the mortality by that disease had augmented to one-tenth.

'The annual loss of lives by small-pox in Great Britain and Ireland in this latter period was separately calculated by two able physicians, and the result laid before a Committee of the House of Commons. The one estimated the numbers at 34,260, adding that he believed those deaths to be under the truth. The other physician made them amount to 36,000.'

This statement, of the truth of which no reasonable doubt can be entertained, affords the strongest argument for the substitution of the vaccine instead of the variolous inoculation; and, when we farther reflect that, in this latter operation, even if conducted on the most improved plan, death sometimes ensued and occasionally very unpleasant consequences of a different kind, we cannot feel sufficiently grateful for the benefits which we have it in our power to obtain from the cow-pox. — We shall conclude with recommending Mr. Moore's work to all our medical readers, and even to those who are not immediately connected with the profession, as containing a large fund of curious and interesting information, conveyed in a clear and lively manner.

Art. IX. *Memoirs of the Life of the Rev. Richard Price,* D.D. F.R.S. By William Morgan, F.R.S. 8vo. pp. 189. 6s. Boards. Hunter.

Well known as the name of Dr. Price has been for so many years, and much as he has been respected for his talents and his virtues, the public cannot fail to welcome an account of his life from the pen of his nephew, whose own name is also not new in the annals of literature and science. It will give us pleasure to make a brief abstract of the information which he has communicated to us.

We learn that the amiable subject of these memoirs was born 23d Feb. 1723, at Tynton, in the parish of Langeinor, in the county of Glamorgan; his father being minister to a congregation of Protestant Dissenters at Bridgend in the same county, and so deeply tinctured with Calvinistic principles, that the liberal and enlightened spirit which the son displayed throughout his life can be in no degree attributed to paternal admonition. Indeed, having one day discovered his son reading a volume of Clarke's sermons, he was so much exasperated by this supposed contamination of the youth's orthodoxy that he threw the book into the fire. This feeling actuated him still farther; and, at his death in 1739, he bequeathed almost the whole of his property to another and more favoured son; so that the subject of these memoirs, with his mother and five more children, was left in circumstances of considerable embarrassment.

At the age of eighteen years, Richard Price left Wales for the metropolis; where he was admitted into the academy, which Mr. Coward had founded for the education of Dissenters. Here he devoted himself with ardour to the pursuit of knowlege, and obtained a great proficiency in mathematical science and theological literature. On quitting this academy, Mr. Price resided during nearly thirteen years as chaplain in the family of Mr. Streatfield, at Stoke Newington; sometimes officiating in different dissenting congregations, particularly in that of the Old Jewry, to which Dr. Chandler was then minister. On one of these occasions, the Doctor reproved the manner of his clerical auxiliary as being characterized by too much vehemence, and deficient in the requisite modesty. It is probable that a little envy at the popularity which Mr. Price was acquiring lurked at the bottom of this reproof: but it is certain that the reproof itself made a strong and undesirable impression on his sensitive temperament; his subsequent delivery being marked rather by a chilling languor than a redundant animation. This alteration rendered him less popular in the pulpit, and, during a considerable interval in his ministry, diminished the number of his auditors and weakened the effect of his preaching.

In 1756, the pecuniary circumstances of Mr. Price were improved by a legacy bequeathed to him by Mr. Streatfield, and by some property which had been left to him by his uncle. The amount of this latter benefaction might probably have been greater, if the orthodoxy of the nephew had made a nearer approximation to that of the uncle: but the latter, having on one occasion discovered that his nephew did not acquiesce in the proper divinity of Jesus Christ, declared that "he had rather see him transformed into a pig, than that he should have been brought up to be a dissenting minister without believing in the Trinity." Mr. Price moved his residence to Newington Green in the year 1758, having married a lady of the name of Blundell in the previous year; and about this time he published his treatise on the Foundation of Morals, which introduced him to the acquaintance of several persons of literary eminence; — to that of Dr. Adams, of Pembroke College, Oxford, Dr. Douglas the late Bishop of Salisbury, and David Hume.

Mr. Price appears to have been always forcibly impressed with a devout sense of the duties which belong to the ministerial office: but, at this period, he seems to have considered other studies as a sort of unauthorized deduction from the time which ought to be occupied by more sacred contemplation. Hence, during the first few years of his residence at Newington Green he devoted himself almost wholly to the composition of sermons, and the toils of theological disquisition. In 1762 he accepted an invitation to succeed Dr. Benson, as evening-preacher in Poor-Jewry-lane: but, notwithstanding this accession to his ecclesiastical labours, he appears to have been so much discouraged by the apathy of his auditors, (a great part of whom he mentions, on one occasion, to have fallen asleep while he was preaching on the future judgment,) that he had 'determined to give up preaching altogether, from an idea that his talents were totally unfit for the office of a public speaker.'

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owing to a defect in his own calculations; and this idea caused him to revolve the question, over and over again, with such an intensity of intellectual application, 'that the colour of his hair, which was naturally black, became changed in different parts of his head into spots of perfect white.'

The Treatise on Reversionary Payments, which was first published in 1769, and which contained an essay on Public Credit and the National Debt, demonstrated that Mr. Price's capabilities of becoming useful were not confined to the precincts of the pulpit, or to those of theological disquisition. This work led to the establishment of institutions for the insurance of life, on more equitable principles than had hitherto prevailed; and it also forcibly directed the attention of statesmen to the important question of providing means for the liquidation of the national debt. Though the sinking-fund was never instituted in the manner that he would have recommended as the most efficacious for the extinction of the debt, yet it cannot be doubted that Mr. Pitt's adoption even of the plan with the smallest degree of counteracting velocity was owing to the cogent reasoning of Dr. Price *, and to the broad blaze of light which he had thrown on the subject. It is not a little remarkable that one of his temperate and truly patriotic publications on the national debt was stigmatized, by the short-sighted selfishness or malignant bigotry of the period in which it appeared, as "visionary, impracticable, and *seditious*:" but time, which dissipates the delusions of opinion, and confirms the deductions of reason, has long shewn the fallacy and injustice of this misrepresentation and abuse. The whole of the national debt, which had been accumulated up to the end of the American war, has already been cancelled by the sinking-fund; and, though the country is now involved in a debt of nearly three times that amount, owing to the lavish expenditure of the late war, yet, if we should be permitted to enjoy another peace of the same duration as that which took place in the administration of Sir Robert Walpole in England and of Cardinal Fleury in France, the present sinking-fund would be found to possess powers fully equal to the reduction of the debt within very moderate limits, and without any violation of the national faith. If any one circumstance, more than another, has tended to exalt this nation in the eyes of Europe, and to raise us to a height of moral pre-eminence which no other people ever attained, it is the uniform constancy with which we have preserved our national credit.

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* In this year (1769), the University of Glasgow conferred the degree of Doctor of Divinity on Mr. Price.

As the writings, therefore, of Dr. Price have certainly tended to strengthen public credit, they have thus had more effect in promoting the general good than usually follows the studious speculations and reflective researches of any retired men: but, if the national reward of an individual were to be apportioned to the degree in which he advanced the welfare of his country, Dr. Price never received any thing like his due share of recompence, being left only to that highest solace of virtue, the self-satisfaction which it diffuses through the mind. When Mr. Pitt adopted one of the least efficient of the plans which Dr. Price had recommended for the relief of public credit and the diminution of the debt, that minister appropriated to himself the merit of the measure, instead of bestowing the praise where alone it was due; yet the following letter, which he had previously written to the Doctor, will prove the high value and importance which he attached to his correspondent's judgment and opinions on this subject:

'" Dear Sir,

' " The subject of the papers which I inclose will, I am sure, be an apology for the liberty I take in troubling you, and in requesting your opinion upon them. When you have had sufficient leisure to consider them, I should be greatly obliged to you if you will allow me to hope for the pleasure of seeing you at any time that is convenient to you.—The situation of the revenue certainly makes this the time to establish an effectual sinking fund. The general idea of converting the three per cents. into a fund bearing a higher rate of interest, with a view to facilitate redemption, you have on many occasions suggested, and particularly in the papers you were so good to send me last year. The rise of the stocks has made a material change since that period, and I am inclined to think something like the plan I now send you may be more adapted to the present circumstances. There may be, I believe, some inaccuracies in the calculations, but not such as to be very material. Before I form any decisive opinion, I wish to learn your sentiments upon it; and shall think myself obliged to you for any improvement you can suggest, if you think the principle a right one; or for any other proposal, which from your knowledge of the subject you may think preferable." '

Dr. Price was distinguished by a warm and sanguine temperament with respect to the future prospects of mankind. The two great events, therefore, which happened in his day, the revolutions in America and in France, excited his most ardent feelings, and made him anticipate such halcyon days as the world has never yet seen, and is not likely soon to witness. With respect to the French revolution, indeed, he beheld little more than the commencement of that awful drama on the great stage of human affairs; and that commencement was such as to dazzle the imagination and to exalt the hopes of men whose philanthropy possessed less ardour than that of Dr. Price. The torrent of eloquent abuse, which Mr. Burke consequently heaped on the venerable advocate of freedom and of peace, will not readily be effaced from the minds of those who are acquainted with the history of that period: but, now that the tempest of prejudice and of passion has passed away, the name of Price will be found to remain unsullied by the obloquy which temporarily assailed it.

While the North-American colonies were engaged in the conflict which terminated in the establishment of their independence, Dr. P. was in the habit of corresponding with Turgot, one of the greatest financial ministers whom France ever possessed. Under present circumstances, and at this distant period, when the veil which then obscured the view of these two reflecting philosophers has been removed, it may be curious to compare their different opinions on the same event, and to contrast the hopes of the one with the despondency of the other. In the American revolution, Dr. Price beheld the political regeneration of Europe in its latent germ, and saw a cheering ray of liberty beaming in one hemisphere that was finally to diffuse its light over the other. He saw also, as he conceived, a train of benefits arising in the perspective of the future, among which was a deliverance from the oppression of despotism and the scourge of war. The views of Turgot, however, were less irradiated by the brilliant forms of enthusiastic hope: whatever might be the issue of the American contest, he did not behold in it the incipient germ of European liberty; and he appears (alas! too justly) to have considered the cessation of war among nations as a chimerical supposition. His words, which are quoted by Mr. Morgan, will be read with interest by those who have been accustomed to contemplate the checquered scene of human affairs during the last half-century. "*Je ne vous parle plus des Américains; car, quelque soit le dénouement de cette guerre, j'ai un peu perdu l'espérance de voir sur la terre une nation vraiment libre, et vivant sans guerre. Ce spectacle est reservé à des siècles bien éloignés.*"

Mr. John Adams, the American ambassador to this country, who was another of Dr. Price's correspondents, regarded the French revolution at the commencement with gloomy foreboding, rather than any pleasurable anticipation; and, with more truth than usually accompanies political speculations, he foretold the destruction of a million of human beings as the probable result. Before this work of havoc had made any progress, the mortal part of Dr. Price had been consigned to the grave; and he expired ere the sad realities of French revolutionary history had time to dissipate his glowing visions respecting the political destiny of mankind. The following is the account which Mr. Morgan has given of the closing scene in the life of his respectable uncle:

'In the beginning of February, 1791, he attended the funeral of a friend to Bunhill-fields without feeling much inconvenience from being exposed to the air in that cold season of the year, though he observed on his return that "this method of conducting funerals was the sure way of sending the living after the dead." In the course of a month he attended the remains of another friend to the same place, and on this occasion the event unfortunately proved the truth of his late observation. Having staid some time to speak over the grave with no effectual covering to secure him from the inclemency of the weather, he was seized in the afternoon with shivering and other symptoms of fever, which on the following day increased so much as to render it necessary to have recourse to medical assistance. His disorder, however, did not appear to be very alarming, and had so far abated in the course of about ten days as to enable him to ride out in a carriage for the benefit of the air, by which he expressed himself to be so much refreshed, that his friends were encouraged to entertain the fond hope of his speedy and complete recovery. But, alas! this hope was soon dispelled — other symptoms succeeded to those of his first disorder, which, if not immediately removed, threatened the most fatal consequences. On the next morning after his ride he was seized with a complaint in the neck of the bladder, which, having resisted all internal remedies, was relieved only by surgical assistance. But this relief was merely temporary — the cause of the disorder still remained — and the repetition of the operation became necessary. At first, recourse was had to it only two or three times a day; but the pain and irritation continually increasing, the repetition became more frequent, till at last the surgeon was hardly gone from the bed-side before he was sent for again to give another moment's relief to his afflicted patient. These dreadful agonies were borne for a month nearly, with a resignation which never uttered a sigh nor a murmur; and to the last hour of his life this good man retained the same placid and benevolent temper of mind which prevailed throughout the whole course of it; and when the last attempt was made to relieve him without effect, he gently reclined himself upon his bed — observing that all was now over; and though the irritation continued for some hours after, he never expressed a wish to have the attempt repeated. In this state he lay from six o'clock in the afternoon till midnight, the faculties of his mind still remaining entire, but his strength gradually sinking. Soon after midnight an evident alteration took place, which denoted the speedy termination of all his sufferings; and a few minutes before three o'clock in the morning, having looked upon his nephew who attended him, with apparent complacency, he drew some short inspirations and quietly breathed his last.'

The high opinion, which we entertain of the virtues and the talents of Dr. Price, will be very evident to those who peruse these pages, and indeed cannot be new to any of our long established readers. The memoirs with which Mr. Morgan has favoured us evince the good sense of the writer: but they would probably have been received with more interest, if they had exhibited a nearer view of Dr. Price's social circle, and had contained more particulars of his domestic history. Those, however, who wish to regard him only as he was distinguished in his professional, his literary, and his political career, will be fully gratified by these authentic details: but even they will complain of the absence of an Index, or Table of Contents, by means of which a reference to any particular circumstance or period would have been facilitated. — A volume of the Doctor's sermons, subsequently published also by Mr. M., will be the subject of a future article.

Art. X. *Enclytica*, being the Outlines of a Course of Instruction on the Principles of Universal Grammar, as deduced in an Analysis of the Vernacular Tongue. 8vo. pp. 135. 6s. Boards. Booth, &c.

Grammar, like all human science, begins in experience. The phænomena of language must first be observed, then classed; and the truism, or form of expression which describes in general terms a mass or collection of these specific facts, is called a rule of grammar. The grammar of a particular tongue is the set of rules defining the practice of a given language: universal grammar is the set of rules common to all the varieties of human speech. We do not, therefore, wholly approve even the title-page of the present author, who professes in it to have here deduced the *Principles of Universal Grammar from an Analysis of the Vernacular Tongue.* Without consulting and considering the comparative anatomy of many dialects, in a distinct stage of growth and advancement, the laws of universal grammar cannot be inferred, or compiled.

Few topics are so incompletely examined in our best Encyclopedias as the philosophy of grammar. Indeed, the theory of languages is yet in its infancy; and a great mistake, we apprehend, prevails respecting the nature of its origin and the course of its progress. Men are supposed to have begun with a single uniform tongue, which has since branched into many dissimilar ramifications: but we must be of opinion that language is instinctive, and was bestowed on man, not as a *lesson* only to be learned by rote and already perfect in all its parts, but as a *faculty*, liable to be diversely exercised by any two human beings. Any mother and child would soon *agree on* the words necessary to their intercourse, but these words might differ in every family. Any brothers would soon concert a reciprocally intelligible vocabulary, but persons in the next village would probably contrive a distinct nomenclature. It is by collecting the children of neighbouring huts, and the families of contiguous villages, that the words invented by each become the common property of all: for, as we have observed on a former occasion, language is confluent, not diffluent. If by political arrangement several tribes were united into a nation, a language pervading the whole incorporation would result from the tributary conversation of each: while, if an empire were dissolved by anarchy, every province would slide back into a separate *patois*. In South-America (see Dolrighoffer), in Africa (see Mungo Park), and in New-Holland (see the letter of Palmer), a new language occurs at the distance of every day's journey, or oftener: but, among nations which intercourse concatenates, one language will overflow a hemisphere. Languages are every where numerous in proportion to the want of civilization; and an *universal* language can result only from the combination of the entire earth.

This anonymous author's first part, or chapter, treats of the gradual formation of speech. He supposes that names, or nouns, were first invented: but we incline to think that interjections are the earliest sort of words. The easiest articulation, and consequently the first syllable uttered by children, is *mah*. In one language, this syllable becomes *mamma*, and signifies the *breast*; in another, it becomes *mama*, and signifies the *mother*; in a third, it becomes *amme*, and signifies the *nurse*; in a fourth, it becomes *amma*, and signifies to *suck*. In the mind of the child, this articulation is associated with the approach of the action of sucking; and by accidental convention with the mother it becomes a verb or a noun, a person or a part of the body. Now in this primary state of the sound it is clearly an interjection: which, like *ho! there! lo! hush! off! fie!* paints an internal impression, and is not a definable portion of any affirmation. The onomatopœia, again, is an interjection, and is among the first words. *Gush! cuckoo! baa! thunders!* may serve alike for verb or substantive; for the name of the torrent or its motion, of the bird or its note, of the sheep or its bleat, of the crash or its action. Impersonal verbs border on interjections; and these are classed, both by Adam Smith and by the present author, among the elements of language. It is moreover admitted here that all nouns are at first *proper names*; and that a noun designated one individual, before it was by compact employed to designate other individuals of the same kind. Now every noun in the vocative case, in which state it probably originates, is in fact an interjection, and describes an internal impression. It is as yet no portion of an affirmation.

We should perhaps regret the disuse of interjections by our dialogue-writers, novellists, and poets, since an interjection is often a picturesque and expressive term; and that interjection, which the first appearance of any object tends to call forth from the human animal, is its most natural name. In Hebrew, the sparrow is called *tsepur;* in Greek, the owl is *buas;* in Latin, the bell is *tintinnabulum;* in French, the gurgle is *glouglou;* in German, the wolf is *wolff;* all with an obvious imitation of their several sonorous characters: but the chirp, the wittawhoo, or the tingtang, when first mimicked by the human listener, was the imitation of an internal idea of the ear, an echo of nature more or less exact, which in proportion to its precision might recommend itself to the adoption of others, and thus become a name; being nevertheless, in its pristine form, a mere interjection, designating some internal affection of the utterer, affirming nothing, and denominating nothing. As, when we think of a quarrel, we tend to imitate the advancing gait, the scowling brow, the snorting nostril, and the clenching fist, of the angry man; so, when we think of any sonorous object, we tend to imitate its voice or sound. In soliloquy, are prepared the future elements of dialogue. The human animal has a certain pleasure in chattering, or making a noise with the organs of speech: boys whistle when they are alone, or mimic the notes of animals; and articulate sounds are thus first prepared, then appropriated.

The interjection, it may be observed, as easily slides into a verb as into a noun. The first articulate *mah* of the child may as well signify *I suck,* as signify *breast* or *mother;* and accordingly in every language, the elementary verb, the fundamental auxiliary, signifies *I suck.* The Latin *sum* we conceive to be derived from *sugere, sumus* to be a contraction of *sugimus,* and *sunt* of *sugunt;* and the other elementary verb, *to be,* appears to have been originally, in Latin, *edo, es, est;* I eat, thou eatest, he eats, or *is.* The defective character of auxiliaries may be traced to their original significance. Nothing insulting, no claim of superiority, appears in *I suck:* but some such meaning might be couched in *I eat.* No contemptuous but a respectful feeling is associated with *thou eatest,* and *he eats:* but the contrary might be insinuated in *thou suckest, he sucks.* Hence *es* and *est* become the second and third persons of *sum.*

In like manner, the English *I am* is etymologically connected with *amme,* nurse: but the English *to be* is probably derived from *bey*, the lap, and means *I rest, thou restest, he rests;* the participle *been* signifying *in the lap.* In Persian, *am* is the auxiliary, and the root of the pronoun for the first person, which we call *me, my, mine:* — in Sanskreet, the auxiliary *ami* is etymologically connected with *amba*, mother; — and the *igo*, drink, of the Brazilian savage, supplies his *aich igo*, I am. Every where, the same filiation occurs.

After having briefly discussed the origin of language, the author proceeds to affirm (p. 8.) that all parts of speech are reducible to four; namely, nouns, verbs, modes, and connectives. We object to the term *Modes* instead of adverbs, because it is inconvenient to employ in a new sense those technical words which have already been otherwise appropriated. — The second part treats of comparative analogy. Much is said of the cases of Greek and Latin substantives; which are supposed, as by Gregory Sharpe, to have been formed by the coalescence, or post-position, of the article: — but how did the article obtain its cases? They must be concealed particles of the class which we call prepositions. For *of man, to man*, they write *man-of, man-to:* and this manner of spelling as one word the substantive and its preposition is called declining a noun. Adjectives are in some languages declinable, in others indeclinable; and nothing is gained by attaching inflections but a power of transposing them freely in composition. — Illustrations from the Sanskreet language are frequent in the notes to the present volume.

We think that the English language is susceptible of two improvements in the inflection of its substantives. First, anomalous plurals might be abolished. We could as easily say *oxes* as *foxes*, or *gooses* as *houses*, and we could soon accustom ourselves to *sheeps* and *fishes.* Secondly, the genitive or possessive case might be written with the vowel *i* when it forms a separate syllable; as the *witchis* prayer, instead of the harsh elision, the *witch's* prayer.

In the inflection of its adjectives, also, our language is open to improvement. The comparative inflection might be attached to polysyllables and participles. We are to say *discreeter, devouter, politer*, according to Lindley Murray's rule: but we cannot say *prudenter, piouser, polish'der.* We may here observe that a great blunder appears to us to be committed in Mr. Murray's chapter on the comparison of adjectives: where he authorizes the admixture, in the same word, of the comparative and the superlative degrees. This we conceive to be false grammar. He justifies *nethermost, uttermost, uppermost:* but the roots being *neath, out*, and *up*, it seems to us to follow that we may write in the comparative *nether* or *neathmore*, and in the superlative *nethest* or *neathmost*: — so again *outer*, or *utter*, or *outmore* in the comparative, and in the superlative *outmost*, or *utmost*; and so *upper* or *upmore* in the comparative, and *upmost* in the superlative: — but we consider it as a double and anomalous comparison to write *uttermost* or *uppermost*. — In the words *undermost* and *foremost*, the roots are not already in the comparative degree; and these are only apparently, not really, analogous cases.

We cannot better display the style of observation adopted by the author of *Enclytica* than by reprinting his remarks on the pronoun:

'The English *pronoun* differs from the other classes of its *nouns*, by having, in imitation of other European languages, an *objective* or accusative case. Ex.

I	thou	he she it	we	ye	they
me	thee	him her it	us	you	them.

'In this construction may be observed a strict adherence to nature, and an evidence that the human intellect is seldom directed by mere caprice in the formation of language. The third person is the only one, in which a sexual pronoun or a sexual inflexion of the pronoun is required, because it is the only one, which is at the same time *indicative* and *declaratory*.

'The Latin construction extends the same distinction to the plural number of that person, and is therein imitated by the Italian and French languages. But this disposition would be of little use in the English tongue. For as that tongue is guided by nature in the generic arrangement of its names, no mistake can arise from the employment of an ungeneric plural pronoun, in those phrases where the predicates are all of one sex; and as according to the well known rule of syntax, when nouns of different gender unite to constitute plurality, the most *noble* * includes them all, the distinction is in that case useless even in those languages where it has place. It was probably adopted in the Latin and its derivative tongues, only in conformity with their capricious attribution of gender to the names of things *ungeneric* in themselves and frequently inanimate.

'The German language is similar to the English in the generic disposition of its pronouns.

'The French and Italian pronouns have an oblique case also. †

'The

'* This is considered, in the Greek and Latin, as well as all modern European languages, to be the masculine; but in Hebrew, Arabic, and the kindred dialects of Western Asia, all that is ungeneric is placed under a feminine inflection.

'† The use of which appears to be very capricious, and only to be learned in the distinct practice of each language. Ex.

Je *te* vois
Il *te* la donne, or

Il

'The German, Latin, and Greek pronouns are declined into different cases in a similar manner with their nouns, and like them are capable of expressing their relations by changes of inflection only.

'The *indefinite* (or, as it is usually called, impersonal) pronoun is peculiar to the languages of modern times. Ex.

Eng.	Germ.	French.	Ital.
one	man	on	si.

'It appears to have been adopted as a substitute for that form of verbal inflection called the passive voice, as its functions are executed in Latin and in Greek by the passive impersonal verb.

'The English indefinite pronoun (one) is employed in a singular sense only, synonimous to the French pronominal *chacun;* while in other modern languages it has also a cumulative meaning, and signifies the public, or at least an aggregate portion of society, and is used under circumstances where the plural (they) is employed by us for the same purpose. Thus:

One lives *; man lebt †; on vit ‡; si vive; vivitur.
They say; man sagt; on dit; si dice; dicitur.

'*One* in English is susceptible of a plural termination, and in German and French likewise; but this is when employed in a definitive sense, as a plural pronoun. Thus;

"The wise *ones* say,"
"The knowing *ones* are taken in."

'*Ones* is not here an impersonal, nor an enumerative word, but the substitute of a plural or aggregative noun, as *individuals*, or *people;* in other words, a plural pronoun.

'So in French, "les *uns* et les autres;" and in German "die *eine* und die andre."

'The English pronominal adjectives are as numerous as those of most other languages ancient or modern: and equally competent, with the aid of prepositions, to express all the relations of language. The three English attributives *his*, *her*, *its*, by a very peculiar modification are expressive of the sex, not of the name to which they are applied, but that of which they are predicated.

'This form of relation, common to the German with our own tongue, imparts often a brilliant precision to meanings, which either in the other modern languages, or in those of Greece and Rome, cannot be expressed with the same brevity. §'

No

Il la donne *a toi.*
Ti daro la mano
Ti vedo
A *ti* aspettiamo.

'* *One* or *an*, Germ. *ein* (being, or one that is) from *sein* (to be); as Εἱς or ἑν from Εἰν (esse).

'† (Man) Germ. "*some*," or "*more than one;*" whence *mannig* (several, many).

'‡ *On* is derived in like manner from *ogni*, Ital. *omnis*, Lat.

'§ "*Hers* the mild lustre of the beaming morn,
And *his*, the radiance of the risen day."

'These

No very good reason can be given for classing under one denomination words so dissimilar as pronouns. Some pronouns are substantives, as *I*, *thou*, *he*, *who*, *which*, *what*, &c.: but other pronouns are adjectives, as *this*, *the*, *that*, *my*, *thy*, *his*, &c.; — and some grammarians make into a third class, called *articles*, the words *a*, *one*, *some*, *the*, and the numerals, reckoning among them *each*, *every*, *either*, *other*, *or*, *so*, *as*, which others call conjunctions. Not enough has been done to disentangle these motley shreds.

Verbs follow next. Their inflections are personal, or temporal. The personal formative syllables no doubt originate in the coalescence of pronouns. If our tongue was wholly self-derived, we should conjugate:

love-i	*love-thou*	*love-he*
love-we	*love-ye*	*love-they*;

and, probably, the terminations of Greek and Latin verbs began in this manner. The temporal inflections originate in the coalescence of auxiliaries. Certain primæval verbs lend themselves as terminations to all the rest. The substantive *love* originally signifies *lip*; and the participles *loved*, *loving*, are resoluble into *lip-having*, *lip-had*: — but whence the *ing* and the *ed* which inflect the auxiliary itself? To *have* is to *hold*; and in many Gothic dialects (German, for instance,) the participle present is formed with *end*, or *and*. Why not derive it from *hand?* Hand-hold is present hold; — and, if so, why not in our language derive the *ing* from *finger?* Finger-hold is present hold. The inflection of the past participle is very like the word *dead*, and perhaps comes from it: in Latin, *ictus*, struck, seems to be the root of the past participle. Children, whose actions are often interrupted by a blow, are as likely to designate the cessation of action by a stroke as by death. Verbs probably originate in the impe-

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'These words *his*, *her*, *hers*, *its*, are commonly asserted to be the oblique cases of the respective pronouns *he*, *she*, *it*. But it is presumed that, in addition to the reasons adduced in a former part, that opinion will be completely refuted by the following arguments.

'1st. The German pronominals from which they are derived, *seiner* (his or its) and *ihrer* (her or hers) are declinable through all their numbers, cases and genders, like the other German adjectives. Seiner, seine, sein (or seines;) Ihrer, ihre, ihr, (or ihres), &c.

'2d. In English, as in German, they are always made to apply to a subsequent noun, like every other personal; *my*, *thy*, *our*, *your*, *their*; and there is no more reason to make them substantive in the singular than in the plural.'

imperative mood; in which form, like a noun in the vocative case, they approach very near to an interjection.

On the subject of adverbs we expected a copious dissertation; because, in an early part of the essay, a new name was given to this part of speech: but we find little more than the meagre eighty-third page allotted to this sort of word. We may be allowed to observe that the adverb, whether attached to an adjective or to a verb, often approaches very near to an interjection, and is usually employed to proclaim some personal impression, which does not affect the main proposition affirmed or denied in the sentence.

With regard to prepositions, the author advances a doctrine that to us is unintelligible:

> 'Prepositions are the auxiliaries of nouns, as auxiliaries are the prepositions of verbs; and this analogy, which we have ventured to apply to English construction, will be found to hold good in all languages, in such proportion as these two classes of words may be employed in them under a separate form. Auxiliaries only become inflectible by their combination with pronouns, and prepositions are also inflected by a syllabic union with the pronominal article. And if our English nouns and consequently adjectives, are not inflectible, from the same cause our verbs are very slightly so; while in other languages, whose verbal system is extensively varied by the syllabic combination of their auxiliary with the independent verbs, that of their nouns is not less so, by the annexation to them of their inflected particles.' *

Part iii. treats of the philosophy of language, and of alphabetic character. Here the writer displays much reading in the grammars of various nations: — but, instead of endeavouring (like Horne Tooke) to strip grammar of its mysticism, and subject its principles to the analysis of reason and the influence of good sense, he too often exhibits a rage for superfine subdivision, and for an affected, innovative, technical, strange nomenclature, resembling that of Harris, the author of Hermes. — We recommend to this ingenious, but not lucid, philologer, a more attentive study of the Grammar, the Dictionary, and the Mithridates of Adelung, who was the greatest glossologist of the present age.

'* The Sanscrit noun has eight distinctly inflected cases.

'The German or Saxon language, which is the foster-mother of our own, has its nouns and adjectives subjected to a very complicated system of declinability, while its verbs are scarcely less simple in their construction than our own.'

Art. XI. *The Agricultural State of the Kingdom*, in February, March, and April, 1816; being the Substance of the Replies of many of the most opulent and intelligent Landholders to a Circular Letter sent by the Board of Agriculture to every Part of England, Wales, and Scotland. 8vo. 15s. Boards. Clement.

The publication of this work was retarded, during several months of the last year, from an apprehension that a promulgation of a series of distressing statements could be productive of no good, but might have the effect of aggravating the general distress. The consequence was that the volume did not come into our hands until the deficiency of the last year's crop had raised the price of corn, and altered materially the situation of the farmers; not by affording any immediate relief to their distress, but by bringing the country into a situation which gave them the full benefit of the provisions of the late Corn-bill. That act had for some time been a nullity, our prices having been much below the average of 80s.: but the effect of the failure of the harvest was to consume forthwith our redundant stock, to raise prices above the regulation-standard, and to oblige us to look for supplies partly from abroad and partly from an extension of cultivation at home. The farmer cannot now complain of the low prices which prevailed in the two extraordinary years that elapsed between the autumns of 1814 and 1816; years in which it was clearly shewn that an extreme reduction of the value of corn is replete with injury even to the mercantile and manufacturing interests, by putting it out of the power of their best customers to make good their engagements. Matters being thus altered, the volume before us is to be considered only historically, and as applying to a state of things which, however recent, possesses no longer the interest that we attach to "existing circumstances." This is the consideration that induced us, some time ago, to postpone our notice of it, and which now leads us to be comparatively brief in our report.—It opens with a circular letter from the Vice-president of the Board of Agriculture, dated 13th February 1816, and addressed to several hundred correspondents of the Board, who are farmers and country-gentlemen residing in different quarters of the island, from Cornwall to the North of Scotland. These queries relate to the following points:

'Are farms unoccupied in your neighbourhood? Have tenants given notice to quit on next term-day? Have rents been considerably reduced?'

'Is the present distress greater on arable than on grass farms? Have flock farms (meaning farms for the pasturage of sheep) suffered equally with others?'

'What is the state of the labouring poor? and what is the proportion of poor-rates compared with the years 1811 and 1812?'

So far the questions of the Board were very proper, their correspondents being likely to possess the means of giving clear and explicit answers to matters of fact that came within their personal observation:—but what are we to think of a grave appeal to a farmer on so comprehensive and so difficult a question as 'Does your quarter suffer from a diminished circulation of paper?'—or the still more vague inquiry, 'What remedies occur to you for alleviating these difficulties?' If a committee of legislators, sitting in the metropolis, with access to all the information that can be furnished by public documents, intelligent witnesses, and a reference to the experience of ages, are obliged to express themselves with much hesitation on inquiries of this nature, we could not be justified in expecting a satisfactory answer concerning them from an insulated individual; who is necessarily confined, in his sphere of observation, to circumstances that pass in his own immediate neighbourhood, and who is wholly unaccustomed to exercise his mind in general comparisons. The consequence was that, while the Board received very satisfactory answers to the earlier questions, they experienced the greatest fluctuation, vagueness, and inconsistency with regard to the last-mentioned topics; some of their correspondents lamenting, in pitiable terms, the diminution of bank-paper; while others were of opinion that the existing amount was entirely adequate to the purpose of buying and selling at the present reduced prices. Again, as to the proposed remedies, we find that some claim 'a reduction of taxes and a regulation of poor-rates;' and others, an 'abolition of tythe, a regulation of brewers, or a loan of public money.' Some gentlemen are disposed to demand, briefly and decidedly, a 'higher price for produce;' while others claim a bounty on export, accompanied by its worthy associate 'a prohibition of import.' Some exclaim strongly against a revival of the property-tax, while one gentleman does not scruple to call for an abolition of 'all taxes except the property.' We were amused with a Cheshire farmer, who looks to a duty on foreign cheese as the grand palliative for the distress of his agricultural brethren: but the main and general object of attack is that provision in the corn-bill, which enables the corn-merchant to import and ware-house foreign grain at all times, even when our currency is below the rate at which he is at liberty to sell it for home-consumption.

The letters of the different correspondents are given in abstract, and arranged by the alphabetical succession of the counties.

ties. We have then the replies of the Scotish farmers and land-holders; which, particularly those from East-Lothian, are well intitled to the attention of all agricultural investigators. Much stress is laid by the Board on the recommendation of the Earl of Winchelsea, Lord Brownlow, and others, that land should be attached to cottages, so as to enable the poor to keep cows. A labourer, who has once made money enough to buy and support a cow, is said to become proverbially industrious and economical; so that, in a village in which the number of such persons is considerable, the poor's rate is not above six-pence in the pound. Without questioning the accuracy of these statements, it is evident that this system must have a limit somewhere; and that the number of cows cannot, under any circumstances, be made to approach to the number of labourers. The plan is besides at variance with those principles which teach us that the great means of rendering labour expeditious, cheap, and productive, is to divide it as much as may be possible, and to direct the attention of the individual to one uniform object. Is it not to the absence, or at least to the very limited application, of this division of employment to agriculture, that we are to attribute the greater difficulty of appropriating capital and managing an extensive concern in that great branch of industry, than in trade and manufactures? The plan of enabling the married peasantry to keep cows, or a cow, has certainly several recommendations; among the foremost of which may be reckoned its conduciveness to the health of children: but the ultimate and general superiority of our agriculture over that of other countries will be found to rest on a wider basis; — on the application of those rules which have succeeded so eminently in our other branches of industry; — we mean, the extensive investment of capital; the progressive division of labour; the general adoption of the husbandry of the improved counties; a reform of the present system of tythes and poor-rates; and an eventual modification of our taxes so as to prevent them, as far as this can be done, from impeding the developement of individual industry.

With these observations we take leave of the volume before us, in the hope that any future appeal by the Board to their country-correspondents will be marked by an abstinence from the very unsuitable questions on which we have been at present obliged to animadvert.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For MAY, 1817.

POETRY.

Art. 12. *Poems*, by Miss D. P. Campbell of Zetland. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1816.

The laudable motive, which is assigned in the introduction for the publication of these poems, would be sufficient to disarm criticism of its severity: but, independently of this consideration, the fair writer will be found to have displayed fancy in the choice of her subjects; and a poetical imagination as well as an amiable mind may be traced in all these compositions. We take one specimen in the address

‘ To the Evening Star.

‘ Bright trav'ller of yon blue expanse,
Throwing through clouds thy silv'ry glance
The dewy ev'ning to adorn;
Say, on what shore shall I appear,
When thou, as wheels the rolling year,
Shalt usher in the morn?

‘ Still must these barren plains and hills,
These rugged rocks, and scanty rills,
My narrow prospects bound?
Must I, where nature's bounteous hand
Dresses in smiles the favour'd land,
Be never, never found?

‘ Still on these plains, where scant'ly spread,
The modest daisy lifts its head,
Or lurks amid the broom;
Still with pall'd eye behold again,
Thin scatter'd on the stony plain,
The primrose scarcely bloom?

‘ Oft fancy wanders many a mile,
To scenes where nature loves to smile,
And scatters charms around;
Where rocky mounts on mounts arise,
Whose tow'ring summits kiss the skies,
With leafy forests crown'd;

‘ Or where the dreadful cat'ract roars,
Or where thro' meads of honied flow'rs
Soft murmuring rivers glide;
Or where the lake expands to view
Reflecting on its bosom blue,
The mountain's woody side.

'But, ah! this ocean's liquid round
My dreary prospect still must bound;
And fancy dreams in vain
Of distant shores, that only shine
For other, happier, eyes than mine,
Beyond the stormy main.'

Some verbal *incuriæ*, harsh elisions, defective rhymes, &c. might be easily corrected in a revision of the several productions.

Art. 13. *The Home of Love*, a Poem. By Mrs. Henry Rolls, Author of "Sacred Sketches," "Moscow," &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Lloyd, &c. 1817.

Without having much originality, the present poems are polished and harmonious, displaying virtuous sentiments and commendable feelings. We copy one of the short adjuncts to the principal composition:

'SIGHS.

'There is a sigh — that half suppress'd,
Seems scarce to heave the bosom fair;
It rises from the spotless breast,
The first faint dawn of tender care.

'There is a sigh — so soft, so sweet,
It breathes not from the lip of woe;
'Tis heard where conscious lovers meet,
Whilst, yet untold, young passions glow.

'There is a sigh — short, deep, and strong,
That on the lip of rapture dies;
It floats mild evening's shade along,
When meet the fond consenting eyes.

'There is a sigh — that speaks regret,
Yet seems scarce conscious of its pain;
It tells of bliss remembered yet,
Of bliss that ne'er must wake again.

'There is a sigh — that deeply breath'd,
Bespeaks the bosom's secret woe;
It says the flowers that love had wreath'd,
Are wither'd ne'er again to blow.

'There is a sigh — that slowly swells,
Then deeply breathes its load of care;
It speaks, that in that bosom dwells
That last worst pang, fond love's despair.'

Art. 14. *The Infant-Minstrel;* or Poetry for young Minds, by various Female Writers. 12mo. 1s. 6d. half-bound. Darton and Harvey. 1816.

The subjects of these compositions are sufficiently diversified, and, though the poetry is simple, it is not inharmonious. The whole seems to be well adapted to the taste of children.

Art. 15. *Sacred Poems*, selected from the best Writers; designed to assist Young Persons to read and recite metrical Compositions with propriety; and to inculcate the most important Principles of Love to God and Benevolence to Man. By Ph. Le Breton, A.M. Master of the Academy in Poland-street. Small 12mo. pp. 144. Law and Whittaker. 1816.

These hymns and religious pieces are not prefaced by any instructions for reading or reciting them with propriety; and, as they form a miscellaneous selection, the names of the writers should have been affixed to each poem.

Art, 16. *The Ruby Ring*; or the Transformations. By Eliza Lucy Leonard. 16mo. pp. 64. 4s. Boards. Hailes. 1816.

Taking a well known oriental tale for the basis, the author has here contrived a pleasing and moral little poem, and has embellished it with some elegant designs.

NOVELS.

Art. 17. *Julia of Ardenfield.* 12mo. 2 Vols. 10s. 6d. Boards. Law and Whittaker. 1816.

'Julia of Ardenfield' is the subject of one of these novels to which little praise or blame can be attached; the style is affected, but not often ungrammatical; nor is the morality objectionable, though it will neither be improving nor impressive: a defect which may arise from the feebleness of the plan, and from the characters and situations being such as have no resemblance to those of real life, though the writer professes to trace a picture of living manners.

Art. 18. *Self-Deception.* In a Series of Letters. By Emma Parker, Author of "The Guerrilla Chief," "Aretas," &c. 12mo. 2 Vols. 12s. Boards. Egerton. 1816.

Miss Parker always treats us with something new in her plot, and something agreeable in her delineations: but the present story totters on the utmost verge of possibility; and it will even be said to have passed that limit by readers who are unacquainted with French manners. The two male personages, who seem to be intended to excite the greatest interest, are also made to act meanly and ungenerously. When the Count de Clairval is persuaded that his wife loves him, he pays particular attention to her unworthy rival for the express purpose of arousing her jealousy; and Mr. Eardley denies repeatedly to his friend that he loves Henriette, while at the same time he urges his suit to that lady.

In volume i., page 234., we meet with the following objectionable sentence: 'I love that country as my own, and having passed all my youthful years there has given it an interest superior to any other;'—and page 257., 'I could not see any difference between the famous Barberini vase and one I had seen *in Wedgewood.*'

Art. 19. *The Pastor's Fire-side.* By Miss Jane Porter. Author of "Thaddeus of Warsaw," "Sidney's Aphorisms," and "The Scottish Chiefs." 12mo. 4 Vols. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1817.

Something like disappointment will probably be caused by the title of this work; and readers, who expect the gentle and domestic scenes of a 'Pastor's Fire-side,' will be surprized at finding themselves carried into palaces and dungeons, and to fields of battle: but the tale displays a great variety of incident, with much justness of thought; and the character of Louis de Ripperda is a touching and finely conceived picture of filial piety and heroic self-denial. The fair writer has, however, taken great liberties with the historical facts on which her novel is grounded. For examples: she makes a pathetic scene of the death of Ripperda's wife, whereas the Duchess de Ripperda outlived her husband; — in order to place *Louis* in the questionable situation of fighting in a lawful cause against his father, she confounds the *Duke de Montemar* with the son of Ripperda; — and, after the disgrace of Ripperda, she carries him at once into Africa, entirely sinking three intermediate years which he passed in England. We will not censure her for omitting all mention of "the fair Castilian" who was the companion of his flight: but we may notice her injustice to another lady, the Countess de Blaggay, who was not, as Miss Porter calls her, a woman of mean birth, but born Countess de Coblentz. As Miss P. seems to have intended Philip Duke of Wharton for one of the most agreeable characters, it was injudicious to represent him as playing off an unfeeling and disgusting joke on Louis in the childhood of the latter; and we overcame not the dislike excited by this incident, till we recollected that the occurrence was impossible, because Wharton was born in 1699, and, as Louis is supposed to have been grown up at the period of his father's embassy to Vienna in 1722, he and his friend must have been nearly of the same age.

We need not trouble our readers by mentioning any farther incongruities: but we must notice a few verbal inaccuracies; such as, (vol. i. page 89.) '*is there no terms* to be kept?'—(Page 113.) 'He *who* Cromwell sent to the scaffold.'—(Page 152.) 'A man *who* he loves.' — (Page 273.) 'Their vapoury lights *lit* him along.'—(Vol. ii. page 58.) 'To *engloom* an evil prospect.'—(Page 65.) 'The sovereigns themselves were *principles*, and that they should be *principles* was astonishing.' — (Page 134.) 'Icy peaks of the *glaziers*.'—(Page 298.) 'The Queen knows how ably you fulfilled your duties, and herself suggested to the King rewarding your zeal.' — (Page 302.) 'The colonnades were *lit* up.' —(Page 355.) '*Yourself has* separated us,' &c. &c.

Art. 20. *The Absent Man*, a Narrative. Edited by Sir Peter Plastic, Knight of the Order of the Tower and Sword. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1817.

The strokes of humour in this book are so mingled with the improbable, the absurd, or the unintelligible, that we cannot prophecy much popularity to 'the Absent Man:' yet the writer appears to possess talents, which would amuse and interest if they were exerted in the developement of a clear and connected story.

Art. 21. *The Cavern of Roseville; or,* The Two Sisters. A Tale; translated from the French of Madame Herbster. By

Alexander Jamieson, Author of a Treatise on the Construction of Maps. 12mo. pp. 174. Law and Whittaker. 1817.

A translation of a pleasing little French tale, which may safely be recommended to young readers, notwithstanding some verbal improprieties; such as 'you will travel in his barge much more *agreeable* than in a waggon,' (page 52.) — 'we are too young, *are* my sister and I,' (p. 53.) — and some passages in which the French expression has been too literally rendered; viz. 'the soul enjoys it with so much felicity that *she* is happy a long time after,' (p. 75.)—'a *round visage*—her *sweet physiognomy*,' (p. 84.)—'may they *encounter* none but serene and happy days,' (p. 174.) &c. &c.

Art. 22. *The White Cottage*, a Tale. 12mo. pp. 344. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1817.

The ground-work of this performance is rather new, the misfortunes of the principal character arising from physical instead of moral causes: but, if the tale inculcates no virtue, still it depreciates none, and it will probably be relished by those readers who love a short and melancholy story.

Art. 23. *Eglantine;* or the Family of Fortescue. By Charlotte Nooth. 12mo. 2 Vols. 12s. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1816.

Though far from being devoid of faults, this tale may be commended as evincing the fair author's literature and general information, conveyed in a lively animated strain, and containing some portraitures of considerable merit. In the story of Miss de Broke, those discomforts which frequently attach to the situation of a governess are so feelingly exhibited, that we wish this delineation of them to be read by every lady who engages the services of such a dependant: — the circumstances of a meeting between two lovers, after a separation of twenty years, are naturally and strikingly depicted in the second volume; — and the narrative of Mrs. Fortescue may afford an useful warning against imprudent marriages, although the recapitulation of her husband's errors does not proceed gracefully from this lady's lips when addressed to her daughter; nor is Miss de Broke's detail of her mother's foolish and harsh conduct a becoming communication to a new acquaintance on the first day of their meeting.

Some grammatical errors must also be noticed; such as (Vol. i. p. 177.) 'These he sold *to* a considerable loss:'—(p. 206.) 'having *ran* over with her eye:'—(p. 229.) 'I had not seen the place since Repton *was had down*:'—'If you would have *rode over*:'—(p. 235.) 'a sweet place just *done up*,' &c. In Vol. ii. p. 26., the fair writer shews that it "is a dangerous thing" for ladies to make Latin quotations, since she there talks of the "*disjecti membra poetæ*."

Art. 24. *The Tale of Edward and Anna*, a Fragment. By Florio. Small 12mo. pp. 144. Longman and Co. 1816.

A turgid and disjointed style marks the composition of this tale, and some Scoticisms and inaccuracies are also perceivable; such as 'some pages were *amissing*,' 'his eyes *sparked fatefully* wild,' 'she was *bed-rid*,' *elogies*, for eulogies, &c.: but the latter part of the story is pathetic.

Art. 25. *Angelion*, or the Wizard in Elis. A Romance. Taken from the German, by Maria de Geisweiler. 12mo. 3 Vols. 18s. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1816.

We are sorry to describe this work as a singular and wearisome medley, displaying much of the sickly sentiment and strained antithesis of most German novelists. The hero is an accomplished Briton, who is extremely '*surprized and wounded*' at not finding still extant in Greece 'the gods of *Phydias*, *Lysipus*,' &c. for so the names are here spelt; and, after some rambling in search of them, he receives as his bosom-friend the man whom he knows to have murdered his father and seduced his mother. All this surpasses the extravagances of Augustus Pottingen himself. Of the aphorisms, the following may serve as a specimen: (Vol. i. p. 157.) 'Mankind in general seldom expire under the point of a dagger, but how often are they tortured to death by the pricking of needles!' Among other inaccuracies, in Vol. i. p. 2. the *Parthenon* is called the Pantheon, and in p. 210. the context seems to represent *Guido* as an antient Greek painter.

HISTORY.

Art. 26. *History of the Campaign of the British, Dutch, Hanoverian, and Brunswick Armies*, under the Command of the Duke of Wellington; and of the Prussians under that of Prince Blucher of Wahlstadt, in the Year 1815: with a Plan of the Battle of Waterloo. By C. de M. Together with an Account of the Origin of the Publication, and some Particulars regarding Bonaparte's Conduct during the Battle of Waterloo: of the Defence of Hugomont and La Haye Sainte; of the Progress of Grouchy's Army, &c. By the Right Hon. Sir John Sinclair, Bart. 8vo. Boards. Egerton. 1816.

We find that C. de M., from whom this historical sketch of the Campaign of 1815 proceeds, is General Baron de Müffling, a Prussian officer of high rank; who commanded, during several months in that year, the part of the allied army which was intrusted with the occupancy of Paris. Nothing, therefore, but the length at which we have already entered on the subject of Waterloo, could induce us to consign this important document to a corner of our Journal; since it contains information of no ordinary nature, and apprizes us of various particulars of which we in vain sought a solution, when preparing an article on this subject for our Number of September last. Among other matters, we learn from this account that the Duke of Wellington was on the ground at Quatre Bras as early as eleven o'clock on the forenoon of the 16th of June, and that he had time to ride to Blucher's head-quarters near Ligny, and to converse with that veteran on the plan of operations, before he returned to his own troops. We have besides the highly essential admission that at Ligny the French were inferior in number to the Prussians; and that they would not, in all probability, have forced the centre of the latter, had not Marshal

Blucher unfortunately been induced by an erroneous report, repeatedly mentioned in this work, (pp. 9. 61. 71.) to move a mass of force round to his right at St. Amand. Again, the amplest acknowlegement is made of the unlucky mis-calculation on the 18th, the Prussians having assured our countrymen that they might depend on the arrival of the Prussian force to our assistance by two o'clock in the afternoon; that is, nearly five hours sooner than they actually reached the ground: a circumstance of the greatest importance, not only as explaining the magnitude of our loss, but as accounting for the conduct of our commander in allowing 18,000 men to remain at Halle, ten miles distant from Waterloo. This numerous detachment was posted at the junction of three roads for the purpose of covering Brussels, and would certainly have been ordered up during the night before to the main body, had not the Duke relied with confidence on early co-operation from the Prussians.

Another interesting feature in General de M.'s publication is the censure passed (pp. 69. 150.) on Grouchy, who was expected hourly by Bonaparte during the 18th, and was regarded by him as an effectual counterpoise to the advancing force of the Prussians. At the same time, the author gives no credit to his countrymen for concealing their march, and is by no means backward in censuring their tactics on more occasions than one. Had our troops been stationed at Ligny, the result of that bloody battle would have been very different. 'The British,' he says, 'have been hardly ever defeated in the open field when ably commanded; their soldiers are vigorous, intrépid, and admirably armed: — no infantry receives the attack of cavalry with so much confidence, or is so little disconcerted when taken in flank or rear.' On the other hand, he remarks that we do not abound in light troops, nor do we make any point of aiming at excursions in the Cossack style; so that, had it rested with us to pursue the French after their defeat at Waterloo, the loss and confusion of the enemy would not by any means have been so dreadful as they were made by the impassioned and embittered Prussians. Our inattention to this (by no means unimportant) part of the art of war would be severely felt, did we not calculate on combining our operations with some continental ally whose tactics are calculated to make up for the deficiency in question.

Such is, in brief, the substance of this curious and useful publication. We are sorry to add that the translation is very defective and erroneous (see pp. 14. 25. 35. 43. 49.); and that both the beginning and the end of the book are *incommoded* by trifling papers from the pen of Sir John Sinclair: who enters on the discussion of military topics with as much confidence, and as large a stock of blunders, as he discovered seven years ago when writing on the Bullion-question and its imaginary axioms.

EDUCATION.

Art. 27. *Grammaire de Lhomond;* or the Principles of the French Language grammatically explained in English, according to the

Rules of the French Academy, &c. &c. By Charles Antoine Devisscher. 12mo. 3s. half-bound. Law and Whittaker. 1816.

This grammar is short and good; and, though it would have been easier for children if the appropriate answer had been placed after each question, yet, according to the present arrangement, more exercise is given to the student's understanding, because the series of questions at the beginning of the work must be resolved from the lessons which follow them.

Art. 28. *The Blind Man and his Son*, a Tale for Young People; The Four Friends, a Fable; and a Word for the Gipsies. 12mo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Taylor and Hessey. 1816.

"*Je ne suis pas la rose, mais j'ai vécu près d'elle.*" Such seems to be the motto adopted by this writer, who ushers his performances into the world under the auspices of Mr. Montgomery; and who, as we conjecture, typifies that gentleman's good offices in the fable of 'The Swan and the Rabbit:' in which the swan acts a part usually assigned to the dolphin, and bears his friend across the waters on his back. We have somewhere read a story of a monkey who deceived a dolphin into the belief that he was a man, and thus was ferried half-way over the channel: but, beginning to chatter, he "imitated humanity so abominably" that the indignant dolphin shook him off into the deep. Now if Mr. Montgomery has mistaken the present writer for a poet, it would have been better for him and for us if he had discovered his error before he granted a passage to such lines as the following:

Page 80. 'And Wellington at Waterloo,
Who crowed out Cock a doodle doo!!!'

Page 92. 'Less what they can than what they cannot;
Less what they have than what they *ha' not.*'

We remark, however, some ingenuity in the author's essay on gipsies, though we cannot assent to the supposition with which he concludes it; namely, that 'Providence has preserved the race of gipsies distinct from the rest of mankind, in order to employ them as Christian missionaries.'

Art. 29. *The Family Robinson Crusoe*; or Journal of a Father shipwrecked with his Wife and Children, on an uninhabited Island. Translated from the German of M. Wiss. 12mo. 2 Vols. Godwin and Co. 1816.

All those who are interested for the celebrated founder of this family will peruse these adventures with avidity, from their similarity to the narrative of Defoe, and from the ingenuity with which subjects of natural history are introduced. We must object, however, that the shipwrecked father is made to employ some cruel expedients in self-defence, or in order to procure animal food; such as taming a buffalo by slitting his nose, and dragging him with a cord passed through the aperture, &c. &c.

Art. 30. *Petit Cadeau à la Jeunesse*, &c. A little Gift for Youth, or New Fables in French Verse. By M.A. Mejanel, Teacher of the French Language. 16mo. pp. 68. Dulau and Co. 1816.

Of these lively and pleasing tales, the subjects are well calculated for youthful readers: but M. Mejanel's explanations of English terms are rather curious; for instance, he chuses as a motto the sentiment of Lord Chesterfield on the necessity of early attention to "*good breeding*," and he then translates it thus, '*Une bonne éducation*,' &c.; and in page 5. he gives a note to inform the French reader that the name of Shakspeare makes but two syllables in pronouncing, thus, *Cheks-pir.*

Art. 31. *An Atlas for the Use of Schools.* By Miss Wilkinson. Two Parts. 8vo. 7s. 6d. half-bound. Law and Whittaker. 1816.

One of these little volumes contains small but neat maps of the eastern and western hemispheres, of Europe, Asia, Africa, and America, and of the principal countries in Europe; and the second part gives the outlines of the same maps, which the learner is required to fill up by adding the cities, the names of rivers, &c. We think that the plan is useful, and the price of the work is so moderate as to facilitate the general adoption of it.

Art. 32. *The Book of Versions,* or Guide to French Translation. For the Use of Schools. Accompanied with Notes to assist in the Construction, and to display a Comparison of the French and English Idioms. By J. Cherpilloud, late Master of Cottage-Green Academy. 12mo. pp. 226. Souter. 1817.

These passages from various authors are particularly well selected, and a student of the French language can scarcely fail to be amused as well as improved by attempting the translation of them. We therefore wish to Mr. Cherpilloud's 'Book of Versions' the success which it merits.

Art. 33. *The Terra Incognita of Lincolnshire;* with Observations, moral, descriptive, and historical, in original Letters written purposely for the Improvement of Youth. By Miss Hatfield, Author of "Letters on the Importance of the Female Sex," &c. &c. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Robinsons. 1816.

Persons who are unacquainted with Lincolnshire will read these prose-descriptions of its scenery with no very lively interest; yet they seem to have been written from competent local knowlege, and will therefore gratify those to whom the subject is a recommendation. In page 20. some words are incorrectly printed, as, *lybernum, clymatis,* &c.; and in page 137. is the following pleonasm, 'some *submerge* themselves *under water.*'

Art. 34. *Pelham,* or the Twin-brothers; a Contrast between Virtue and Vice, being an affectionate Lesson to Youth. By William Chown, Schoolmaster of Moulton, near Northampton. 12mo. 6d. Printed at Northampton. 1816.

A well-meant little tale, which may be useful in a certain sphere, though the style and language are not sufficiently correct for polished readers.

Art. 35. *Dialogues on Curious Subjects in Natural History.* 12mo. 2s. half-bound. Darton and Harvey. 1816.

As an humble imitation of Mrs. Wakefield's "Instinct displayed," this little work makes no claims to being called an original performance: but it conveys some information and amusement in a short compass and at a small expence.

Art. 36. *A System of Geography*, for the Use of Schools; on a new and perfectly easy Plan; in which the European Boundaries are stated, as settled by the Peace of Paris, November, 1815. With Maps. By J. Bigland. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Printed at Derby.

We may recommend this small volume for adoption in schools, since it is, in our opinion, better suited to that purpose than any similar treatise which has lately fallen under our inspection.—On the first perusal of the preface, we thought that Mr. Bigland was rather too loud in praise of his own performance: but, on examination, we concur in his estimate as correct, and shall therefore avail ourselves of a part of that preface, in order to indicate to our readers the peculiarities of the plan which he has adopted.

'After exhibiting the reasons which induced me to undertake this elementary treatise, it is requisite to explain the plan. The interrogative system is universally acknowledged to be the best adapted for conveying the rudiments of instruction. Those who are acquainted with the philosophy of the human mind know that, in early youth, it acquires knowledge only by assiduous inculcation and frequent repetition. Flexible and ductile, it readily receives and as readily loses any impression: it therefore requires frequent and repeated exercise, which is best performed by interrogation and response. But it has been discovered by experience, that, when the whole lesson consists of questions and answers, it necessarily involves much useless matter, and the plan of instruction is cramped by the process. In this treatise it has been my aim to avoid these inconveniences. Every lesson is divided into articles concisely expressed and accurately numbered. The pupil is to be examined on each particular head by the questions subjoined to the lesson, and corresponding with the numbers; so that a glance of the eye suffices to show to which article each question refers; and the pupil, by examining maps while perusing his lesson, will acquire, in the most easy and pleasing manner, a correct knowledge of geography.

'One of the great advantages resulting from this method is, that it not only fixes the geographical matter in the mind of the pupil, but also enables him to converse on the subject; for as it is not necessary that he should repeat the words of the article to which the question refers, but only the substance, he will, by this kind of exercise, acquire the habit of expressing his thoughts with promptitude and propriety, which is one great end of juvenile instruction. Another advantage arising from the plan here adopted, is the readiness with which the learner may be directed to the article of examination, in order to correct any errors proceeding from inattention.' This precludes the necessity of referring to other books for the solutions, and thereby greatly facilitates the work of the master.'

As the plan is judicious, so also we think that the execution is very correct, and that the whole is well suited for a geographical class-book in schools.

Art. 37. *Geography for Youth*, adapted to the different Classes of Learners. By the Rev. John Hartley. 2d Edition. 12mo. 4s. 6d. bound. Longman and Co. 1816.

For young children, perhaps, the form of question and answer is preferable to that which is adopted by Mr. Hartley; in whose work a large type is selected for such passages as are to be learned by heart, and occasional questions without their answers are suggested to the teacher in notes at the bottom of the page. Still we may recommend this as a clear and useful compendium of geography.

Art. 38. *The French Scholar's First Book*; comprising a copious Vocabulary, a Collection of familiar Phrases, &c. By Ph. Le Breton, A.M. Master of the Academy in Poland-Street. 12mo. pp. 92. Law and Whittaker. 1817.

We think that this little book is well calculated for beginners, since it is not overloaded with explanations; and the author, who is accustomed to the task of instruction, has introduced and arranged such rules as are most necessary, together with some amusing and well written stories for children.

Art. 39. *Principles of Elocution*; containing numerous Rules, Observations, and Exercises on Pronunciation, Pauses, Inflections, Accent, and Emphasis; also copious Extracts in Prose and Poetry, calculated to assist the Teacher, and to improve the Pupil in reading and recitation. Second Edition. By Thomas Ewing. 12mo. pp. 436. Law and Whittaker. 1816.

Both teachers and students of English elocution will find Mr. Ewing's performance serviceable; since his rules are in general very good, and his extracts form an agreeable and judicious selection.

POLITICS.

Art. 40. *Collections relative to the Systematic Relief of the Poor*, at different Periods, and in different Countries; with Observations on Charity, its proper Objects and Conduct, and its Influence on the Welfare of Nations. 8vo. pp. 220. 7s. Boards. Murray.

We have seldom seen a greater variety of matter compressed within the compass of a thin octavo than we here find; the author, whoever he may be, having spared no pains to explore the historical records of the state of the poor in all ages and nations. He begins with a statement of the condition of the poor among the Jews from the days of Moses; and, after having turned aside (p. 21.) somewhat capriciously to China, he proceeds to recapitulate a variety of circumstances connected with the provisions for them under the Grecian and Roman governments. This part of the inquiry leads him into classic ground, and affords him an opportunity, of which he makes somewhat too liberal an use, of indulging in quotations from Greek and Latin writers. At last he comes (p. 68.) to the institutions for the poor in modern times; which induces him to make the tour of Europe, and to expatiate successively on the merits of the provisions in Italy, France, Holland, England, Scotland, and Ireland, not forgetting even the crude system of Russia, or the still less inviting method in Iceland.

Among the most instructive passages, is the very full abstract (p. 140. *et seq.*) of the various dispositions of the system of poor-law in England; and in fact the book, with all the disadvantages of want of method and arrangement, will be found a very convenient collection and object of reference to persons engaged in considering the state of the poor. The author has in a great measure contented himself with acting the part of a compiler; introducing in comparatively few instances any original observations, though he is certainly not devoid of capacity for making them; and nothing can be more evident than the spirit of benevolence that actuates him throughout.

Art. 41. *Of the Revolutionists, and of the present Ministry,* by M.——— Translated from the French. To which is prefixed an Historical Memoir of Fouché of Nantes, now styled Duke of Otranto. By the English Editor. Second Edition. 8vo. pp. 87. Allman. 1816.

One of those vehement publications which we have seldom known to do good in any country. The part that properly forms the pamphlet is anonymous, but bears evident marks of the pen of a Frenchman, who would have no objection (p. 34.) to see his native land once more convulsed for the sake of restoring to the emigrants their lost estates; and being also one of those who have no doubt of the existence of an extensive conspiracy previously to the return of Bonaparte from Elba. By way of adding fuel to the flame, the English editor, in his historical notice of Fouché, enlarges with extraordinary vehemence on the former delinquencies of that versatile politician. Unluckily, neither of these gentlemen seems to have succeeded in operating a change on the views of the French court; the present system of policy at the Tuileries being to consult the feelings of the revolutionists, and to drown party-spirit in oblivion, as far as it may be possible to effect this desirable object.

Art. 42. *Conversations on Political Economy;* in which the Elements of that Science are familiarly explained. By the Author of "Conversations on Chemistry." 8vo. pp. 476. 9s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1816.

This is an attempt to explain, in an easy and familiar form, a science which has not as yet been presented to young persons in any shape that deserves the name of an attractive publication. The author, a lady, sets out by admitting her doubts of success, and her apprehension that the present offspring of her pen is likely to be less generally circulated than her elementary work on Chemistry; owing partly to the novelty of the attempt, but more to the comparative dryness of the subject. Nothing, she adds, could have induced her to make the experiment but a conviction that political economy is immediately connected with the happiness of mankind ; and that Dr. Smith, M. Say, and others to whom the science is most indebted in point of research, have not by any means succeeded in giving their writings a character of popularity. We are also told that, after much hesitation concerning the form of her work, she determined to follow the plan of dialogues, as giving her an opportunity of introducing objections, and placing questions and answers, in various points of view, as they had actually occurred to her own mind : but the colloquial form is not confined in this, as in school-books, to a mere prosecution of an argument by question and answer; it is made the vehicle of various collateral remarks, contributing both to engage the attention and to illustrate the subject. The Conversations are pursued in a lively, entertaining strain, diversified by many allusions to amusing topics ; and exhibiting, on the whole, a very satisfactory proof of the degree of interest which it is practicable to give even to so uninviting a study as political economy. We must, however, refrain from laying extracts before our readers ; and, as to the contents of the book, it is sufficient to observe that they embrace most of the great divisions of the science, such as the 'Nature of Capital, Money, and Revenue;' 'the Nature of Commerce, Foreign and Inland;' 'the Division of Labour;' with observations on Wages and Population, and on the Condition of the Poor, and even a disquisition on the abstruse topic of the Principles of Money. Those who wish to see a short specimen of this lady's mode of reasoning may turn to the passage, p. 260., which recommends the adoption of a measure recently brought before parliament, we mean the abolition of the existing restriction on the rate of interest; where they will see a summary of the arguments in favour of the proposed change, followed up by a few justifiable sarcasms on the ordinary prodigality of governments, 'those borrowers who contract debts without any view of profiting by the use of the loan, and in general without any prospect of repaying it.'

On the whole, this work deserves to be regarded as an useful and instructive performance on a very difficult subject. The author has evidently been aware of the obstacles with which she had to contend, and has spared no effort to give perspicuity to her reasonings both by the general style of the book and by the arrangement of its contents ; which are stated in the outset in a brief form, more fully at the beginning of each conversation, and finally, in a collected shape, in the index at the end.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 43. *An Essay on Average*, and on other Subjects connected with the Contract of Marine Insurance. Dedicated by Permission to the Committee for managing the Affairs of Lloyd's. Second Edition. By Robert Stevens, of Lloyd's. Royal 8vo. pp. 322. Richardson. 1816.

The present is a new edition, on a much enlarged scale, of the Tract on Average which we noticed in our lxxiiid vol. p. 443.; and we are induced to present it again to the attention of our readers, because the various augmentations in the present impression supply, in a great measure, all that was wanting in the former, and afford the public a complete disquisition on a very intricate department of insurance-business. Although the topics discussed in it possess so little interest for our readers at large, that we should ill consult their gratification by extracts or by an analysis of the book, yet the high importance of its contents to the particular branch of the community which it regards induces us to point it out as a specimen of what may be accomplished by other writers, in different departments of mercantile business. It is in fact much to be regretted that printed information has been given with so scanty a hand to our young merchants, almost all of whom have to acquire their knowlege by the slow progress of actual experience. We are by no means inclined to think that any treatise, however clear or accurate, can supersede the necessity of long practice: but we should propose to combine the two, and enable the man of business to make the perusal of disquisitions on the principles of trade an accompaniment to his actual transactions, and an object of reference in many of the cases in which he finds himself at a loss, or obliged to resort to the advice of his seniors in trade, than whom no class of men are more apt to entertain discordant opinions.

Art. 44. *A Sketch of a new universal Division of Time,* accompanied with a few Articles connected with it. To which is added, by Way of Appendix, a brief Sketch of a new universal System of Measures, Weights, and Coins. 8vo. pp. 72. 3s. Rowe. 1816.

The object of this tract, as announced in a whimsical kind of preface, is to introduce greater simplicity into our tables of time, measures, weights, and coins; which the writer is desirous of accomplishing by giving the decimal form to our subdivisions of time, measures, and weights, in the following manner:

'100 Seconds = 1 Minute.
100 Minutes = 1 Hour.
10 Hours = 1 Day.
30 Days = 1 Month.
12 Months and 5 Days = 1 Year.
12 Months and 6 Days = 1 Sextile Year.
100 Years = 1 Century.'

This plan is pursued, with certain modifications, throughout other tables, viz. of length; of square measure; of cubic measure; of weights; and finally of coins. Most persons are agreed that it would be very desirous to equalize the weights and measures throughout the kingdom, and perhaps even to put them on a level with those of our neighbours. It is well known that the French have completely new-modelled their weights and measures since the Revolution, and have certainly, by means of the decimal method, introduced great simplicity into their calculations: but they have not gone so far as this writer in making seconds, minutes, and hours decimal parts of their respective integrals; nor can we pay him the compliment of supposing that the hints conveyed in the present pamphlet will fix the attention of the grave legislators of either country.

Art. 45. *Remarks, &c. &c. on the safe Conveyance and Preservation of Gunpowder.* By James Walker. 12mo. pp. 197. Printed by Darling, Leadenhall-street.

We have so much dislike to quackery, whether it be employed in extolling Japan Blacking, Russian Oil, or Patent Powder-barrels, and so much puffing appears in the pamphlet before us and its accompanying memorials, &c. that we have some fear that we may write this article under a degree of prejudice. We will, however, endeavour to counteract it, and proceed to state that Mr. Walker commences with an address to the public, which is followed by various remarks, pointing out the great importance of the invention of the patent barrels, and the immense saving that would accrue from the general adoption of them. In order to exhibit these advantages in their *strongest* light, the quantity of powder that has at different periods been returned from ships of war unserviceable, and to be re-made, is thus stated: Totally unserviceable, the 'enormous quantity' of 137,993 barrels: to be re-made, the 'equally amazing quantity' of 189,757 barrels; making the 'astonishing quantity' of 327,750 barrels. After this *astonishing* statement, we are furnished with seventeen remarks, or *sufficient reasons*, to prove that these patent barrels should be immediately and generally adopted by the navy. Among other reasons, it appears that all our losses with the Americans might have been prevented by a timely use of Walker's powder-barrels; and, which is of nearly equal importance, the adoption of them will be a great means of curing that disease, so fatal to his Majesty's navy, the *dry rot!* In fact, scarcely any limit can be put to the important consequences which are likely to result from the general introduction of these powder-barrels into the British navy and the East-India Company's service.

Dismissing, however, all ideas of quackery, let us now attend seriously to the value of Mr. Walker's invention; which, according to the testimonials received from different naval officers, must not be deemed inconsiderable. In the barrels commonly employed, from the wood of which they are composed not being perfectly dry, or from its quality of absorbing and transmitting moisture to their contents, the powder becomes lumpy, and frequently unserviceable. This evil is prevented by the materials and the means employed in forming the copper-barrels; which, as we learn from the certificates, &c. will preserve the powder placed in them for some years in nearly as perfect a state as when it was first put up; while that which is placed in the usual wooden barrels is deteriorated in a few months.

The following abstract from a letter written by Rear Admiral Sir Benjamin Hallowell, when Captain of his Majesty's ship Malta, is the most conclusive, the results being drawn from actual experiments; and the only defect in the evidence being that it states no particulars as to the time and original quality of the powder in the wooden barrel. If both powders were from one sample, and kept in store under similar circumstances, no other proof of the superior claims of the copper-barrel would be requisite; and the general adoption of the latter would certainly be justified, notwithstanding the great difference in the *first* expence.

' *To* J. W. CROKER, *Esq. &c. &c. &c.*

His Majesty's Ship Malta,
In Tarragona Bay, Feb. 1. 1814.

' Sir, — I have deferred offering any report upon Mr. Walker's powder, brought out in the Malta, until it should have been long enough on board to admit of its real qualities and merit being ascertained. Having made several experiments last month at Tarragona, I beg to state the results for the information of my Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty.

' The first experiment from a 4⅖-inch howitzer, at an elevation of 45° with one ounce of powder, gave the following

	RANGE OF POWDER.		
	Walker's Barrels.		*Wooden Barrels.*
1st Discharge,	205½ Yards	- -	138 Yards
2d do.	222 do.	- -	137 do.
3d do.	222 do.	- -	170 do.

To render it a fair trial, the same shell was made use of in every discharge.

' The powder taken from Mr. Walker's barrel was packed in July 1811, in paper cartridges, and had not been opened previous to this experiment.

' A second experiment was made from the same Barrel, with a 24-pounder long gun; the results were as follow:

			RANGE.		
			Walker's Yards		*Wooden* Yards
1st Discharge,	1° Elev.	8lb. Powder	1640	-	1164
2d do.	5° do.	7lb. do.	1692	-	1612
3d do.	6° do.	6lb. do.	1610	-	lost.

' Another barrel was opened a few days after, which came from England in the Marlborough, and had been filled in September 1812. The following are the results of an experiment made from a 12-pounder carronade, with one pound of powder:

			RANGE.	
			Walker's	*Wooden*
1st Discharge,	Point blank,		lost - -	534 Y.
2d do.	1° Elevation	-	924 Yds.	668 do.
3d do.	1° do.	-	762 do.	536 do.
4th do.	5° do.	-	1062 do.	982 do.
5th do.	5° do.	-	1018 do.	922 do.'

From this statement, it appears that the strength of powder, preserved in the patent barrels, is to that which is kept in the usual manner in the ratio of about 4 to 3 on a medium; which is certainly a very important consideration: but some other experiments, reported by Captain Cleavland of the Royal Artillery, reduce that ratio to about 43 to 41; and others, again, by W. Patterson, Esq. of the East-India service, give the proportion of about 8 to 7. On the whole, it appears indubitable that the powder is preserved in a much more perfect state in these barrels than in those of the common construction; and that the invention is creditable to Mr. Walker, and deserves the consideration of the government.

The memorial to which we have before alluded, as accompanying this pamphlet, relates to the extreme danger attending the present mode of packing and conveying gun-powder through the metropolis, particularly in its being unloaded from carts and put on board boats, barges, &c.; which, it appears, is frequently done while men are smoaking their pipes, or while fires are burning for the purposes of pitching and repairing boats, &c. The facts stated in several of the letters contained in this memorial are intitled to the most serious attention of the legislature; and we shall be happy to learn that a practice, so alarming to the neighbourhood in which it almost daily occurs, has been prohibited by the interference of parliament, so that other modes of packing the powder may be enforced, in order to render less dangerous its transmission from place to place.

Art. 46. *An Account of the Origin, Principles, Proceedings, and Results of an Institution for teaching Adults to read,* established in the contiguous Parts of Bucks and Berks in 1814. Dedicated to H. R. H. the Prince Regent, Patron of the Institution. 8vo. pp. 140. 4s. 6d. Boards. Hatchard. 1816.

A benevolent wish, said to have been expressed by our venerable King, that he might not have a subject who was unable to read the Scriptures, seems likely to be realized; for not only are Sunday-schools and others every where established for the purpose of instructing the young, but institutions have been formed in many parts of the kingdom, the object of which is to extend the benefit of instruction to the ignorant adult. The book before us contains the history of one of the latter, which has been founded in Bucks and Berks; and its success appears to have been as extensive as the exertions of the committee have been wise and liberal. The question which, in recent times, was raised as to the policy of giving to the poor the benefit of education, is now no longer argued; and the affirmative being once generally allowed, the system of teaching the adult has this farther recommendation, that the expence with which it is attended can only be temporary, since in a few years the necessity will no longer exist: the wide diffusion of education among the younger poor having, by that time, so completely expelled total ignorance, that an adult institution will not know where to seek for pupils.

Adult instruction appears to have been encouraged in America; and there is room for hoping, from a correspondence with the French committee of education, that it may become a part of the general plan of education about to be established in France.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 47. *The Prospects of the New Year; or God a National Refuge in Times of Trouble.* Delivered in Leman-street Chapel, Duke-street, Blackfriar's, London, January 5. 1817. By Thomas Curtis. 8vo. Gale and Fenner. 1817.

We have no doubt that Mr. Curtis means well, but he has not the faculty of very clearly or definitely expressing his meaning. After having quoted the maxim that the law of the land ought to be the will of the people fully and truly represented, he proceeds to find fault with that doctrine, and says, 'To talk of will being law when all law is made to govern the will, is such vain and vile philosophy, as no wise man could deliberately entertain, and in a Christian point of view is but little short of *blasphemy*.' Mr. C. forgets that the law is, or ought to be, the expression of that national will which is designed to controul the will of individuals, and to render it subservient to the general good. In order to give force to his opinion against reform, he confounds the will of the community with the caprice of individuals.

Art. 48. *The Duty and the Means of ascertaining the genuine Sense of the Scriptures.* Delivered at the Rev. W. Wall's Meeting-House, Moorfields, Feb. 8. 1816, at a Monthly Association of Ministers and Churches. By Henry Forster Burder, M.A. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Conder. 1816.

Though we do not assent to the truth of all Mr. Burder's remarks in this discourse, we coincide in the justness of much which he has said on the duty of studying and the mode of interpreting the Scriptures. The more we study the Scriptures as we contemplate other antient books, with a view to discover the historical and grammatical sense, the less we shall be bewildered by those vague and perplexing theological notions, which are not the result of scriptural erudition so much as of a total ignorance of the general tendency and peculiar idiom of the holy writings.

CORRESPONDENCE.

Senex shall be gratified without much delay: but some time and consideration are necessary for the accomplishment of the object in question.

We are still in hopes of effecting the plan suggested by R.W.: but difficulties have impeded it, and may perhaps ultimately defeat our wishes.

M. Devisscher will see an account of his publication in the present Review.

*** The APPENDIX to Vol. LXXXII. of the M. R. is published with this Number, and contains various interesting articles of FOREIGN LITERATURE, with the *General Title, Table of Contents*, and *Index* for the volume.

THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For JUNE, 1817.

Art. I. *The Works of Henry Howard Earl of Surrey, and of Sir Thomas Wyatt the Elder.* Edited by Geo. Fred. Nott, D.D. F.S.A., late Fellow of All Souls College, Oxford. 2 Vols. 4to. 7l. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co.

Although these volumes are printed uniformly, and published as one set of books, they are in fact distinct works: the first divided into two parts, containing the writings of Lord Surrey, with the Editor's *apparatus criticus* respecting that noble author; and the second including Sir Thomas Wyatt's productions, with similar commentaries and excursive matter. — We propose to confine ourselves, in the present article, to the former, and will take an early opportunity of making a report of the other.

As our readers may possibly inquire by what art a small duodecimo, such as they have usually seen to hold the remains of Surrey, has been suddenly expanded over more than nine hundred quarto pages, closely printed, it may be well to relieve their astonishment by drawing out for them a brief table of contents. The first volume, then, furnishes, 1. Memoirs of the Earl of Surrey. 2. A Dissertation on the Improvements introduced by him into English Poetry. 3. His Poetical Works. 4. His Letters. 5. A large Body of Notes on the Poems. 6. A long historical Notice of the Earl of Northampton, Surrey's second Son. 7. and lastly, A copious Appendix, consisting of sundry Matters relevant and irrelevant. It will easily be presumed that so comprehensive a volume, without its companion, affords ample materials for as many pages as we can afford to allot to the subject at one time in the M. R.

The life of the gallant and ingenious Lord Surrey, as detailed by his present editor, is divested of much of that romantic dress which obscurity on the one hand, in the shape of traditional history, and hasty compilations on the other, chiefly resting on popular belief, seldom fail to superinduce. It seems, indeed, that tolerably strong reason exists for surmising that no previous biographer of this early poet has sifted the evidence, on which he compiled his narrative, with any degree of care proportioned to the celebrity of the character which he proposed to illustrate. Horace Walpole's account is very jejune; and, while error and exaggeration may be avoided by conciseness, truth and historical information are equally sacrificed by it. Thomas Warton, possessed of far superior learning and industry, has confided too implicitly in Anthony Wood; a source from which, as a perennial stream, most modern English biographers have drawn with little compunction. Dr. Nott has been very indefatigable in his research, and in the course of it has found much cause for invalidating many facts hitherto deemed genuine: but a writer who sets out with the assumed necessity of controverting almost all the received opinions, on the subject in which he is engaged, will frequently overstep the proper limit, and propose a new theory where he is required only to correct an old error. Some instances of this disposition occur in these memoirs, especially where the editor is called to exercise his judgment between conflicting evidence; and in such cases it will not escape his readers that an inclination exists towards the side which is most paradoxical. The materials, however, of which Dr. Nott has been enabled to avail himself, are far more valuable and authentic than those of his predecessors; such as the archives of the Howard family, preserved by the different branches of their descendants; the documents in the State-paper office; books of the Privy Council, &c.; the former throwing light on the *domestic*, and the latter on the *political* life of the poet. For much of this peculiar advantage, the editor is indebted to the patronage which the Prince Regent has liberally and commendably extended to the undertaking.

Henry Howard, Earl of Surrey, was great grandson of that Duke of Norfolk who fell in the cause of Richard at Bosworthfield; and his grandfather, at that time Earl of Surrey, was confined in the Tower when Henry VIIth obtained possession of the crown, but was afterward liberated by the same monarch, taken into favour, and restored to his paternal honours of the dukedom of Norfolk. The father of the poet, and son of the preceding, known under the successive names of Lord Thomas Howard, Earl of Surrey, and lastly Duke of Norfolk, married first the Lady Anne, youngest daughter of Edward the IVth, by whom he had several children who died in infancy, and secondly Lady Elizabeth Stafford, daughter of the Duke of Buckingham. The celebrated Earl of Surrey was the eldest son by this marriage, and, as his father survived him, is historically known by no other appellation. Neither the place nor the exact date of his birth can be settled with any thing like precision: but Kenning-hall in Norfolk is suggested by Dr. Nott as the most probable scene of the former, and the year 1516 as a date for his birth most coinciding with some events of his life better ascertained in point of time.

The first statement of former biographers, which the reverend editor prepares to controvert, is the presumed education of Lord Surrey at Windsor-Castle in company with the Duke of Richmond, a natural son of Henry VIII. It cannot be doubted that these two young men passed some of their earlier years at that place; Lord S. himself bearing testimony to it in his poems, and the following words occurring in the writings of Lord Herbert of Cherbury: "It appears that these two noble youths were bred up together, and spent much of their young days at Windsor:" words, however, which are not strong enough to imply that it was the regular scene of their education. Dr. Nott has had access to a curious book of household-expenditure belonging to the Norfolk family, from which it appears that a boy was brought up at Tendring-hall in Suffolk, where he passed the spring and the summer-months, removing to Hunsdon in Hertfordshire for the winter on the 29th of October in each year. The expences of the nursery-establishment are regularly entered in this document; and the fact deduced from it relative to Surrey seems at first sight satisfactory, but is not so on examination. The accounts of the nursery-dinners are from 1513 to 1524 inclusive: but, if Lord Surrey was born in 1516, what becomes of this evidence?— The name of Surrey's preceptor is unknown. Dr. Nott proposes the celebrated Leland, Hadrian Junius, and lastly Clerke, a learned Englishman of those days, who continued to reside in this nobleman's family until the time of his attainder; and a preference grounded on presumptive evidence is given to the latter. The whole of this statement, however, seems perfectly conjectural, and not intitled to much attention. It will be recollected that Surrey had the strongest stimulus to literary exertion in the success of many nobles who were closely allied to his family: Bouchier Lord Berners, the translator of Froissart, Thomas Lord Stafford, Parker Lord Morley, and George Boleyn Lord Rochford, having been long conspicuous for taste and learning. Such were doubtless the persons whose example warmed the ambition of the aspiring boy: but the names of those who directed his studies and pruned the exuberances of his fancy must probably continue in obscurity. Anthony à Wood says that, when Surrey's domestic education was completed, he was sent to Cardinal

College, (now Christ-Church,) Oxford, but he rests his authority on tradition alone. The present editor imagines that he went to King's College, Cambridge, and studied there under Richard Croke: but we do not see that Dr. Nott produces much stronger ground for this surmise, than Wood gives for his traditionary report: though the circumstance that Lord Surrey was subsequently elected High Steward of the latter University may perhaps be deemed corroborative of the fact of his having studied there.

Of the usual divisions of education observed by the young nobility at the beginning of the sixteenth century, an idea may be collected from the following passage in Hardinge's chronicle, preserved by Mr. Ellis in the preface to the last edition of his "Specimens," and quoted by Dr. Nott. It appears closely to correspond with the system pursued with Surrey.

'And as Lord's sons been set, at four year age
At school to learn the doctrine of letture;
And after six to have them in language
And sit at meat, seemly in all nurture:
At ten and twelve to revel is their cure
To dance, and sing and speak of gentleness:
At fourteen year they shall to field I sure,
At hunt the deer, and catch an hardiness.

'For deer to hunt and slay, and see them bleed
An hardiment giveth to his courage.
And also in his wit he giveth heed
Imagining to take them at avantage.
At sixteen year to warry, and to wage,
To joust and ride, and castles to assail,
To skirmish als, and make sicker scurage,
And set his watch for peril nocturnal.

'And every day his armour to essay,
In feat of arms with some of his meynie;
His might to prove, and what that he do may
If that he were in such a jeopardy
Of war befall, that by necessity
He might algates with weapons him defend.
Thus should he learn in his priority
His weapons all, in armes to dispend.'

At the age of sixteen, Lord Surrey married the Lady Frances Vere, daughter of the Earl of Oxford: but the parties did not live together immediately on their union, a restriction necessarily and usually imposed at that period, in the case of such early marriages. With this lady, however, he is said to have afterward passed his days in all the harmony of conjugal affection, to have had several children by her, and to have left her a widow. These and similar circumstances have led some persons to suppose, in opposition to much testimony, that the Lady Geraldine, to whom the poet addressed so many amatory strains, was only an imaginary personage; or, in the case that her reality should prove incontestible, to draw conclusions very unfavourable to the moral character of her lover.

The first appearance of Lord Surrey in public life is recorded by Holinshed to have been at the meeting between Henry VIII. and Francis I. at the *Champ d'Or*. Instead of returning with his sovereign from that gorgeous display of barbaric magnificence, he seems to have remained a short time at the French court, in company with the Duke of Richmond, natural son of the King, and who shortly afterward married Surrey's sister. He was again present in England at the coronation of Anne Boleyn his relative, and in the following year was destined to hear sentence of death pronounced on her by his own father. Dr. Nott mentions an anecdote that Henry passed the day of the execution in the amusement of hunting in Epping-forest, and was married on that same evening to the Lady Jane Seymour: but this is contrary to a tradition which we have heard, that the latter ceremony took place at Marwell near Winchester, a distance from Epping that would have rendered a much longer interval necessary between the execution of the one wife and the marriage of the other. It is not to be supposed that Surrey contemplated such scenes as these with indifference: but misfortune shortly came still nearer to his own home. In the same year, his uncle was attainted for high treason, and sent to the Tower; and he lost his early friend the young Duke of Richmond by a natural death. 'It was soon after this last event,' says the biographer, 'that Surrey is supposed to have taken his romantic tour in Italy, where we are told that he maintained, in obedience to the fair Geraldine's commands, in tilts and tournaments the superiority of her charms to those of all her sex. As there is something pleasing in the picture here drawn of an *high-minded* and honourable lover thus gallantly employed, I feel some reluctance in stating that the whole of this romantic story is purely fiction.' Different persons receive pleasure from different sources, which is here clearly the case with reference to Dr. Nott and ourselves. To us, we confess, it would have been no subject of particularly pleasant contemplation, that Surrey had been so very *honourable* and *high-minded* as to leave an amiable wife and children, in order to proclaim through the cities of Italy, if not his own incontinence, at least his estrangement from that person who had the only just claim to his affections. A prudent biographer would have rather softened the faults and apologized for the errors of his hero, than have obtruded them on his readers in the shape of approval and commendation.

We are assured, however, that this story of the tilts and tournaments is entirely false *, and that Geraldine was at this time only seven years of age. If such were the case, she could have been but ten years old in 1539, the year in which the editor deems it probable that Surrey's attachment to the haughty fair one first commenced; while the lover must at this time have been in his twenty-fourth year.—We will sum up a few of the leading events in Surrey's public life before we revert to this extraordinary story.

In the latter end of the year 1540, Lord Surrey began to take an active part in public affairs. He was employed by the King to put some of the English possessions on the other side of the Channel in a proper state of defence, and acquitted himself well in that service. In 1542, he was made a knight of the Garter, which was then a strong proof of royal favour. In the following year, war having been declared against the Scotch, he served a campaign in the north under his father, but on his return to London exhibited some traits very inconsistent with the serious and grave demeanour for which he appears usually to have been remarkable.

'After his return from the northern expedition, Surrey resided chiefly in London. We collect this from a singular occurrence, which is interesting as it marks the romantic turn of Surrey's mind; and enables us to form some opinion as to the nature of his sentiments on the subject of religion.

'On the first of April, Surrey was summoned before the Privy Council to answer to two charges which had been brought against him. The one was for having eaten flesh in Lent, contrary to the Royal prohibition. The other was a charge of an extraordinary nature. He was accused of having walked at night in an unseemly and disorderly manner through the streets of London, breaking windows with a cross-bow.

'To the first charge Surrey replied by alleging a licence; and on this point he held himself absolved, though he admitted that he

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* The story rests chiefly on a book intitled "The Adventures of Jack Wilton," from which large extracts are given in the Appendix. This work appears to be a curious and early specimen of fictitious travels, holding a mean situation, in point of the probability of the incidents related, between Don Quixote and Robinson Crusoe. Wilton describes himself as having joined Lord Surrey in Italy, and there witnessed his knightly feats: but the whole seems purely imaginary.

had eaten flesh more openly than, in strict propriety, he ought to have done.

'The truth of the second charge he allowed; and as far as it was a breach of the peace, he submitted himself to such punishment as the Privy Council should think proper to inflict. He besought them, however, not to impute the offence to a light and disorderly turn of mind; such as would disgrace him at his years, and be unworthy of his rank and station in life.

' "My motive," he said, "was a religious one, though I confess that it lies open to misconstruction. It grieved me, my Lords, to see the licentious manners of the citizens of London. They resembled the manners of Papal Rome in her corruptest state, and not those of a Christian communion. Was I to suffer these unhappy men to perish without warning? That common charity forbade. The remonstrances of their spiritual pastors had been urged, I knew, in vain. I therefore went at midnight through the streets, and shot from my cross-bow at their windows, that the stones passing noiseless through the air, and breaking in suddenly upon their guilty secrecy, might remind them of the suddenness of that punishment which the Scriptures tell us Divine Justice will inflict on impenitent sinners; and so lead them to a reformation of manners." * '

We are wholly unable to participate in the sentiments of the editor, when he designates what to us appears a mad piece of levity as a proof of *a romantic turn of mind.* The ingenuity of Surrey's defence must be peculiar, to have that weight with a reverend divine in the nineteenth century in which it was to all appearance deficient with the Privy Council in the sixteenth: but surely it is ludicrous to be told, that 'an enthusiastic mode of contemplating common objects' developes itself in the feat of breaking windows with a cross-bow! This mode of contemplation, however, caused Surrey to be confined in the Fleet-prison: but how long he remained there is uncertain. On the rupture with France which ensued, he went to the Continent, probably as a volunteer, under Sir J. Wallop, who commanded the English forces, in order to perfect himself in the art of war; on which occasion, and while engaged at the siege of Landrecy, his commander gives him the following character: "My Lord of Surrey seems to have lost no time since his arrival at the army, for he visiteth all things that be meet for a man of war to look upon for his learning; and such a seige hath not been seen this long time in these parties, and things devised for the getting of a town as this is; and although they have been slow in doing the same, yet it groweth now to a right good perfection."

' * See "Satire against the Citizens of London," p. 53.

On his return from the Continent, Surrey devoted his time to the embellishment of his newly-built palace, Mount Surrey, on St. Leonard's Hill, near Norwich, and to the society of literary men. The apparent facility with which he accommodated himself to very opposite employments, changing from the active habits of war to the sedentary and contemplative occupations of poetry and philosophy, and in neither case apparently engaged contrary to his disposition or his abilities, is one of the most striking peculiarities of his character. It can scarcely be doubted, however, that, had his years been extended to a longer date, the pride of knighthood would gradually have yielded to the charms of ease and literature. Even in youth, indeed, the inclination for the grave pursuits of the scholar predominated over the ambition of military glory; and foreign service was courted rather as a school for a particular science, than as a theatre for ostentation and parade. Hadrian Junius, and the old poet Churchyard, then a boy*, were at this time the inmates of his house, and the latter afterward bore handsome testimony to the liberality of his benefactor.

The commencement of a new campaign withdrew the noble poet from these congenial pursuits, to act abroad in the conspicuous station of Marshal of the army. The war was only partially favourable to the English; Boulogne was indeed taken: but Surrey and his father were during the greater part of that seige employed in a division which acted against Montreuil, and did not obtain their object. The Earl of Hertford, now rapidly rising in favour with the capricious King, and who had long looked with jealousy on the Norfolk family, omitted no opportunity of undermining their influence at court; and it is conjectured that he caused proper supplies to be withholden from the Duke of Norfolk, while in command, in the hope that his ultimate failure might weaken the royal confidence in his talents or his fidelity. "We know of truth," (said Norfolk writing to the King, and quaintly describing the situation of the besieged,) "that many of them eat horseflesh; and some of their soldiers, gentlemen, Italians, are glad to eat of a cat well larded, and call it dainty meat." Notwithstanding such representations, those reinforcements were denied which alone could enable the English General to take advantage of the distressed state of the enemy. The exterior marks of royal favour, however, did not yet decline. In the succeeding year, Surrey was appointed to the command of Boulogne; and although at his arrival he found it in a most defenceless state, he preserved this place to the English crown by his zeal and activity. During his absence from court, the clouds began to gather around him and his family. The first notice of the coming storm reached him in an order to quit his government, and return to England; though the command was not accompanied by any marks of disapprobation. He did not hesitate to comply immediately with the royal mandate: but, as he considered Lord Hertford to be the cause of his removal, he spoke of him in terms of bitter reproach and undisguised contempt. His inconsiderate expressions, used under the sting of provocation, were reported to the King; and in consequence the gallant youth was committed a prisoner to Windsor-Castle, (a spot endeared to him under very different circumstances,) shortly after his arrival in England: but this confinement was not of long duration, and he appears, after he was enlarged, even to have assisted at some ceremonies at court. On the 12th of December 1546, however, he was again arrested, and sent prisoner to the tower of London; and the committal of the Duke of Norfolk shortly followed.

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* His curious translation of Ovid has, we have heard, been lately reprinted in black letter at the cost of Earl Spencer, and by him presented to the members of a bibliomaniac society called "The Roxburghe Club."

The attainder of this noble Duke and of his gallant son, under a charge of high treason, a few days previous to the death of Henry the Eighth, being historical facts by no means unimportant, are probably better known to the generality of readers than many other events of the same reign. The charges exhibited against them appear frivolous in the extreme even had they been substantiated, but the majority of them were fairly rebutted by the accused; and the whole story presents a terrible scene of domestic as well as political debasement. The domestic depravity of the age discloses itself in the breach of all honourable confidence between members of the same family, and the array of the nearest relatives of the accused on the side of the accuser; while the political degradation is shewn in the motives of the accusers themselves, barely and negligently disguised, and in the means which they took to insure their objects. Lord Surrey, having been condemned, was beheaded on Tower-hill, as it is generally supposed, in the thirtieth year of his age, on the nineteenth or twenty-first of January (it is uncertain which) 1547 *; when, as

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* Lord Surrey is said to have been first buried in the church of All-Hallows, Barking, and to have been afterward removed by his second

as concurrent testimony seems to prove, the King was not in a state competent for any business, and was probably unable even to sign the warrant for execution. Holinshed says that Henry was "in the extremities of death" as early as the thirteenth of January, the day of the trial, and he died probably in the night of the twenty-seventh: but, as we find in Burnet that a difficulty in writing had led him to use a cyphered stamp some time before his death for the purpose of signature, it is not impossible that the royal assent on this occasion might have been obtained surreptitiously. The Duke of Norfolk, owing probably to the King's death, survived the storm, though not without the loss of a large portion of his vast possessions; and he procured the reversal of the act of attainder in the ensuing reign.

In person, the noble poet is described as somewhat small of stature, but well made, active, and able to endure much fatigue: his eye, dark and piercing; his countenance, thoughtful. In his habits, he was magnificent and sumptuous, but courteous and condescending: in disposition, of high courage, easily provoked, but soon appeased, and incapable of dissimulation. His mind was much cultivated, and of a romantic but contemplative cast. His acquirements, independently of the manly accomplishments of the body, comprehended a knowlege of the Latin, French, Italian, and Spanish languages, and an acquaintance with the best models of composition in most of them.

To the life of the Earl of Surrey, the editor has added all that he has been able to collect relative to the fair Geraldine, the Laura of this English Petrarch. A similar attempt will be found in Lord Orford's works: but the present inquiry is more full, and has exacted more industry, though it is not much more satisfactory. That she was a real personage has been generally allowed; but it must be confessed that the story of the passion which the poet entertained for her loses some of its credibility, when an attempt is made to confine the in-

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second son, the Earl of Northampton, to Framlingham, in Suffolk, who there placed an inscription over the body. This inscription, as quoted by Dr. N., seems replete with chronological errors. Surrey is said there to have died in 1566, nineteen years after that event happened; and his son to have placed the monument in 1514, or, as we find by the list of errata, in 1614. This epitaph must either be an invention of *Hawes*, from whose history of Framlingham it is taken, or have been carelessly copied by him, and so transcribed by Dr. Nott. It is wonderful how the latter could have overlooked such inconsistencies. Other marks of incorrectness also appear about the inscription.

cidents resulting from it within fixed dates and seasons. She is presumed to have been Lady Elizabeth Fitz-Gerald, commonly called Garrat, daughter of Gerald Fitz-Gerald ninth Earl of Kildare, a family descended from the Geralds of Florence. * She is said to have been born in Ireland, probably in the year 1528, and to have been sent to England while an infant under the protection of the King, and educated in the establishment of the Princess Mary, to whom she became a lady in waiting about the year 1542. Tradition adds that, at the age of fifteen, she was married to Sir Anthony Brown, then in his sixty-first year; and that, after his death in 1549, she became the third wife of the Earl of Lincoln, whom she also survived. Dr. Nott supposes Surrey to have first declared his passion for her in 1541, when she was in her *thirteenth* year; and he has somewhere said that he loved for two years in silence: she therefore became the object of his passion very considerably before she entered on her teens. Nevertheless, whenever this attachment commenced, the poet was neither fortunate in the prosecution of it nor so far enslaved but that, when long treated with neglect and disdain, he was able to divest himself of the enchantment; and, from the time at which he accepted the command at Boulogne, we hear no more of his love, whence arises a presumption that it was effectually conquered. Yet "*risum teneatis, amici,*" when the reverend Doctor discourses in the following strain? 'Geraldine was of that ungenerous disposition, too often, *alas!!* united to beauty, which makes attachment subservient to admiration, and seeks in love no higher gratification than that of vanity.' We trust that, before the editor penned the foregoing sentence, he threw aside his gown and cassock, and exclaimed, "Lie there, Doctor." To make amends, however, for what might appear to the inconsiderate as a disapproval of the lady's chastity while unmarried and of her conjugal fidelity when married, he afterward subjoins his opinion that Surrey's love was purely of the Platonic kind: but, allowing, as he does, that nothing can be more dangerous to morality than this flimsy self-deception, how can he well condemn the conduct of the lady, who rejected it, as ungenerous and unamiable?

We are not inclined, however, either to impeach or to defend the purity of the poet's intentions,—an useless task at the best, and an impertinent one on a topic relative to which we, in company with the editor, are very imperfectly informed indeed. An amatory poet, like a knight-errant, must have a mistress, real or imaginary: wives, it seems, by some statute in the court of Apollo, being formerly incapacitated from holding this distinguished place in the eyes of their own husbands; and we must leave it to them to protest against such a law. Whether Geraldine was a peerless beauty at eleven years of age, or a creature of the poet's brain, a Dulcinea del Toboso, (only lighter by a pound or two) or lastly, whether Dr. N.'s dates are not fundamentally wrong, must be decided by others who are more curious in such matters.

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* A fact resting on the authority of a short poem by Surrey, addressed to her, and beginning, "from Tuscane came my noble lady's race."

The Dissertation on the state of English Poetry before the sixteenth century displays very considerable research into the history of its rise and progress, and is by far the most laboured part of the editor's performance. It is divided into twenty-two sections; embracing a great mass of disquisition, critical as well as historical; and, if one definable end must be given as the intended result of the whole collectively, we may state it to be a summary of the improvements introduced by Lord Surrey into English versification, deduced from the imperfections of his predecessors, and the visible effect arising from imitation of him, as a model, in those who succeeded him. It is farther argued that this influence extended not merely to the more artificial parts of poetry as a science, but to the reform of the English language generally. Lofty, indeed, are such claims as these: but they are advanced with boldness, and defended with vigour and penetration.

Section I. relates to the nature of our versification previously to the time of Surrey: the point in question being, whether the fluency and harmony of his numbers were the result of principles first introduced by himself, or whether he only improved on principles already understood. To comprehend this question rightly, it becomes necessary to examine the numbers of Chaucer, undoubtedly the first polisher of our language, and even of those who preceded him. Mr. Tyrwhitt, the last editor of the Canterbury Tales, supposes Chaucer's versification to have been completely metrical, each heroic verse consisting of eleven syllables: but, as many of the lines of that poet fall short of this standard by one, two, and even three syllables, he would attribute such seeming irregularity to the changes that time has produced in our pronunciation. Subserviently to this system, he assumes a mode of pronunciation in reading poetry by which many words, of which one syllable is now dropped by the voice, are extended: such as *Lord-is* for Lords, *bathed* for bath'd, and other like expedients: but even these licences, however widely stretched, fail that editor in the application of them: because numberless verses would still remain which no such usages could bring into the form of regular iambic hendecasyllables. Dr. Nott has not observed, but is probably aware, that this hypothesis of Mr. Tyrwhitt was by no means original; Speght, the editor of Chaucer in 1597, having asserted the same long before him; and in fact the former has merely reduced into system the observations of the latter. His own opinions may claim a precedent in those of Dryden on this subject*: the modernizer of Chaucer was at variance with Speght on the same grounds on which the editor of Lord Surrey now differs from Tyrwhitt: but Dr. Nott has shewn reasons for the rejection of the system, which we may suspect that Dryden was incompetent to assign.

The second section treats of the different sorts of English verse in use before the time of Chaucer, viz. the octosyllabic, the Alexandrine, and the alliterative. It seems unnecessary to define their respective peculiarities, since to persons who are fond of this branch of philology they are already known, and to others they are not interesting: but one point will subsequently be deduced from the disquisition, viz. that, if Chaucer was not the prototype of *metrical* versification in our country, his improvements in *rythmical* were great and incontestible.

Dr. Nott is thus led to consider the nature of rythmical versification, which he does in his third section, adducing specimens of it from poets antecedent to Chaucer. It is the property of this early species not to consist of a given number of feet, but to be so constructed as to render a certain cæsura and cadence necessary in the recitation; and the most positive proof that these early poets themselves did not write in rude metre, but simply in rythm, has been excellently derived by the editor from the very manuscripts in which they are preserved; where, for the purpose of assisting recitation, the cæsura is regularly marked, or, if not marked, an evident hiatus is left to shew the place of the pause between two hemistichs; as thus,

"England is right good : I ween it is land best;"

and in the manuscript of Piers Plowman's visions,

"In a summer season . when soft was the sun."

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* See Ellis's "Specimens of early English Poets," vol. i. p. 209., and the preface to Dryden's Fables by himself, in Mr. Scott's late edition, vol. xi. p. 220., where that editor characterizes Dryden's opinion as "hasty and inconsiderate," and Tyrwhitt's position as supported with equal pains and success.

Other marks are used besides these single or double dots, clearly with the same view; and, as if to distinguish them from any thing like punctuation, however rude, they are delineated in ink or paint of a different colour from the text. By extracts from the manuscripts of Chaucer, we are convinced that he made use of this same cæsura, and secured the use of it by an intelligible mark; and consequently the improvements, which he made in poetry, may, we think with the editor, be fairly allowed not to comprize the invention or rather adaptation to our language of verse purely metrical. His lines the Doctor considers generally as decasyllables, but as rythmical and not metrical; and, wherever pure iambic verses occur, he would attribute them to accident: observing that, if Chaucer had any preference for the iambic line, (which he probably would have if it had been his invention,) the slightest transposition of the words in many of his own verses would have produced for him the desired effect. As the ultimate object of this disquisition on rythm and metre is to give the palm of the invention in our language to Lord Surrey, it becomes necessary to prove that the style of the intermediate poets, from the time of Chaucer to that of his Lordship, was also simply rythmical. With this view, reference is made to those who had the greatest share of eminence, as Hoccleve, Lydgate, Stephen Hawes, Barclay, (the translator of Brandt's Ship of Foles,) Skelton, and lastly Parker Lord Morley, a nobleman nearly connected with Surrey's own family. In all these, as well as in Chaucer, iambic lines are to be found; and, indeed, to any person who considers how much our language runs in that metre, it would appear strange if our poets, although they wrote professedly in rythm only, had not been betrayed into what we now esteem legitimate verse. That the poets whose names we have enumerated wrote in rythm only is ascertained by reasons similar to those that are urged in the case of Chaucer. *

In the seventh section, which forms a conclusion to one (and a material) subject of the Dissertation, are summed up the changes in our versification that are attributable to Lord Surrey; and which we may safely allow him the credit of having introduced, if the proof that they were previously unknown has been satisfactorily displayed.

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* To the names of Tyrwhitt, Walter Scott, and others, who have considered Chaucer as metrical, should be added the distinguished testimony of Mr. Morell, the author of the Greek Thesaurus. We are inclined, however, to assent to the evidence so largely collected by Dr. Nott.

'The change he proposed and effected was this. He substituted for the old rhythmical mode of versification one, as nearly metrical as the nature of any language, which regulates the value of syllables by accent, and not by quantity, will allow. He limited the heroic verse to ten syllables, and these he divided into five equal iambic feet; for he perceived that the frequent return of the short syllable was necessary to correct that languor and ponderosity which the constant recurrence of monosyllables would otherwise occasion. He was aware however that the iambic measure, though sweet in itself, was liable to become monotonous and pall upon the ear. He therefore introduced the further refinement of breaking the lines with pauses. The natural place for the pause was at the end of the fourth syllable where the old cæsura generally fell; but he varied the situation of his pauses as he found the harmony of the verse required, or as he thought the beauty and effect of the passage would be heightened by it.'

The improvements introduced by Lord Surrey in poetic diction, structure of period, and rhyme, are deduced by the editor from a mode of comparison similar to that which he adopted on the subject of versification. In these respects, his Lordship shines with greater lustre when compared with his more immediate predecessors than when put in competition with Chaucer: the connection of poetry with sound, and the association of pedantic and affected terms with our language, being inventions subsequent to the age of the father of our poetry. 'He likewise discountenanced altogether,' says Dr. N., 'the French mode of laying an unnatural stress on final syllables, and followed the obvious and common pronunciation:' but to us it appears that this was more the result of his metrical versification, and therefore it is irrelevantly introduced here as a new topic of commendation. The strong accentuation in question was necessary to the rythmical verse, especially on the syllable at which either the first or the second cæsura rested; and with these artificial cadences this forced method of pronunciation also died away. That Surrey was the first writer of blank heroic verse in the English language is indisputable; or at least the first writer whose attempts have been preserved: but whence he borrowed the system, if not original, is not so clear. Warton suggested that the invention was probably derived from Trissino's *Italia Liberata:* but Dr. Nott doubts the possibility of this fact on chronological reasons, in which he is supported by the date of the Italian poem given in Tiraboschi; and, although he contends for the originality of Surrey, he would refer those who are inclined to dispute it rather to the early Spanish than the Italian poets.

Though we have now cursorily considered only about one half of the dissertation, we must take the opportunity of leaving it at a point at which it departs from the more direct line of comparison, and, having established the claims of Lord Surrey as ὁ ποιητης in its primitive sense, goes on to dissect with greater nicety the nature of his style, sentiments, and language. Before, however, we proceed to the poems, a few matters may be stated generally. It does not appear that the noble poet drew much from either French or Spanish sources, open as they must have been to him from his knowlege of the languages; and therefore it is not to be doubted that his imitation of the models of Italian composition arose from preference: a preference which was possibly strengthened by the precedent of Chaucer, who, as he was the only English poet worthy of the imitation of a man of Surrey's genius in point of taste, so is the only or nearly the only one from whom he could draw as a native spring. It may be added that the very nature of Surrey's subjects would lead him to Petrarch, as an amatory writer: but that he studied him more generally also we have every reason to believe. — Of Surrey's imitators, it is difficult to define the number: but Dr. Nott closes his list of what may be termed the direct followers with Spenser; while the indirect, or those who have succeeded to the ideas, after the refinement of many crucibles, will extend to much more modern days. Indeed, as Surrey introduced among us a species of versification which has continued in use with very little variation ever since, our subsequent poets may still be deemed the heirs of his poetical bequests. The early popularity of the poet is a test of the improvement which he effected in public taste; his writings, exclusive of selections of them, having been reprinted nine times within the first thirty years from their appearance: but they have never been invested with a degree of splendor worthy of their author before the present occasion. — In this edition, after the example of Mr. Ellis, and indeed according to the dictate of good sense, the modern orthography has been adopted throughout; and it little concerns us whether or not this shall be pleasing to antiquaries, who, if attached to old spelling, are attached to ignorance as such: since, from the constant variations in it, we may say that it was evidently subject to no other rule than the uncertain guidance of sound.

The extant poems of Lord Surrey consist, as our readers may know, 1st, of amatory compositions written in various measures, and under opposite feelings of the mind, as hope or despair, love or indignation for unrequited attachment, prevailed on the several occasions. They are addressed or relate to one and the same person throughout; that is, they do so apparently, and bear an internal evidence of such a fact: but the name of the fair Geraldine occurs, as far as we recollect, in one place only. 2dly, paraphrases of portions of the book of Ecclesiastes, and some of the Psalms, written for the most part in the cumbrous verses of fourteen syllables to the line, alternately with the verse of twelve, and with the mark of cadence expressed after the eighth syllable in the longer and after the sixth in the shorter line. 3dly, a translation of the second and fourth books of Virgil's Æneid in the iambic decasyllable, without rhyme; and presumed, as we have already said, to be the first specimen of this metre in the English language. A few other poems are inserted, — such as the Satire against the Citizens of London, written on the occasion of the poet's confinement for riot, — that are not assignable to any of these heads.

It is by no means our purpose at the present day to offer criticisms on a poet of the date of Surrey. A few loose and scattered remarks would ill supply that knowlege which is necessary to appreciate his beauties, and to discover his imperfections; a knowlege not attainable but by reference to the taste of the age in which he lived, and the literary character of the times which preceded and followed him, not in our country only, but more especially in those which had emerged into clearer light from the darkness of the middle ages. For a great mass of information, although somewhat diffuse, on this head, we have pleasure in recommending the dissertation of Dr. Nott, and his notes on the poetry. — As so much, however, has been said about the poet himself, a few extracts from the first class of his writings, which far exceed the others in power of expression, will probably be a grateful relief to our readers.

Our first citation shall be a poem in which he reproves those who would compare their mistresses to Geraldine, asserting that Nature herself declared his mistress to be the most perfect of her works.

> ' Give place, ye lovers, here before
> That spent your boasts and brags in vain;
> My lady's beauty passeth more
> The best of yours, I dare well say'n,
> Than doth the sun the candle light,
> Or brightest day the darkest night.
>
> ' And thereto hath a troth as just
> As had Penelope the fair;
> For what she saith ye may it trust,
> As it by writing sealed were:
> And virtues hath she many mo'
> Than I with pen have skill to show.

' I could

‘ I could rehearse, if that I would,
The whole effect of Nature's plaint,
When she had lost the perfect mould,
The like to whom she could not paint:
With wringing hands, how she did cry,
And what she said, I know it, I.

‘ I know she swore with raging mind,
Her kingdom only set apart,
There was no loss by law of kind
That could have gone so near her heart;
And this was chiefly all her pain;
“ She could not make the like again.”

‘ Sith Nature thus gave her the praise,
To be the chiefest work she wrought;
In faith, methink! some better ways
On your behalf might well be sought,
Than to compare, as ye have done,
To match the candle with the sun.’

Warton speaks of this composition as possessing almost the ease of Waller;—and, though the loss of the mould by nature has by too frequent use become rather a trite figure in our poetry, this can be no objection to Surrey. Dr. Nott happily quotes from Ariosto, Orl. Fur. Canto X.

“ *Natura il fece, e por ruppe la stampa;*”

a line translated almost literally by Lord Byron in his Monody on Sheridan.

The following is in Surrey's happiest manner:

‘ The soote[*] season that bud and bloom forth brings,
With green hath clad the hill, and eke the vale.
The nightingale with feathers new she sings;
The turtle to her make[†] hath told her tale.
Summer is come, for every spray now springs.
The hart hath hung his old head on the pale;
The buck in brake his winter coat he flings;
The fishes flete with new repaired scale;
The adder all her slough away she flings;
The swift swallow pursueth the flies smale;
The busy bee her honey now she mings;[‡]
Winter is worn that was the flower's bale.[§]
And thus I see among these pleasant things
Each care decays, and yet my sorrow springs!’

The editor thinks that he discovers that the general idea of the foregoing is borrowed from Petrarch, Sonn. 269.; and if so, as he justly observes, Surrey far surpasses his original. The

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‘ [*] Soft. [†] Mate, companion. [‡] Mingles. [§] Destruction.’

same may be said of the ensuing lines, confessedly from that poet:

> ' Calm is the sea, the waves work less and less:
> So am not I, whom love, alas! doth wring,
> Bringing before my face the great increase
> Of my desires, whereat I weep and sing,
> In joy and wo, as in a doubtful ease.
> For my sweet thoughts sometime do pleasure bring;
> But by and by, the cause of my disease
> Gives me a pang, that inwardly doth sting,
> When that I think what grief it is again,
> To live and lack the thing should rid my pain.'

We select the subsequent pleasing little poem as appearing to convey a good idea of the contemplative and melancholy cast of Surrey's mind. If the cadence be made sufficiently strong in the middle of the line, each verse will read as two, and have the effect of ballad-metre.

> ' Laid in my quiet bed," in study as I were,
> I saw within my troubled head" a heap of thoughts appear.
> And every thought did shew" so lively in mine eyes,
> That now I sigh'd, and then I smil'd," as cause of thought did rise.
> I saw the little boy" in thought how oft that he
> Did wish of God to scape the rod," a tall young man to be.
> The young man eke that feels" his bones with pains opprest,
> How he would be a rich old man," to live and lie at rest.
> The rich old man that sees" his end draw on so sore,
> How he would be a boy again," to live so much the more.
> Whereat full oft I smil'd," to see how all these three,
> From boy to man, from man to boy," would chop and change degree.
> And musing thus I think," the case is very strange,
> That man from wealth, to live in woe," doth ever seek to change.
> Thus thoughtless as I lay," I saw my wither'd skin,
> How it doth shew my dented chews," the flesh was worn so thin.
> And eke my toothless chaps," the gates of my right way
> That opes and shuts as I do speak," do thus unto me say,
> " Thy white and hoarish hairs," the messengers of age,
> That shew, like lines of true belief," that this life doth assuage;
> Bid thee lay hand, and feel" them hanging on thy chin;
> The which do write two ages past," the third now coming in.
> Hang up therefore the bit" of thy young wanton time;
> And thou that therein beaten art," the happiest life define."
> Whereat I sigh'd, and said," "Farewell! my wonted joy;
> Truss up thy pack, and trudge from me" to every little boy;
> And tell them thus from me;" their time most happy is,
> If, to their time, they reason had,"" to know the truth of this."

In addition to the poems confessedly from the pen of Lord Surrey, such others are introduced as have been attributed to him on respectable authority, but have hitherto been preserved only in collections of anonymous writers. Of these, by far the most important is "A Description of the restless State of a Lover, when absent from the Mistress of his Heart." The easy flow of the verse, which is octo-syllabic, as well as the general elegance of the composition, would render it difficult to assign any other parent than Surrey to this production, provided that the date of it stands on certain grounds; and, as Turberville, who was but little junior to Surrey, refers to it, and even quotes a line from it, little doubt remains on this head. Another poem from a curious MS. of the time of Henry the Eighth, in the possession of the Duke of Devonshire, does not rest on quite such strong evidence: but the presumption seems fully sufficient to justify its introduction in this collection.

The letters of Lord Surrey consist in a great measure of military dispatches, or refer to other points relative to the situations which he held in the King's service, and are consequently of little interest to the general reader; though, as subsidiary to the history of the times, they are probably of more value. The first, addressed to the Privy Council, requesting their intercession with the King, and written while in confinement, probably in 1541, when he challenged John à Leigh, displays much modesty and calm reflection. We give the few concluding lines as a specimen of the writer's style.

> "Your grave heads should yet consider, that neither am I the first young man, that, governed by fury, hath enterprized such things, as he has afterwards repented. Neither am I so wed to my own will, that I had rather with favourable surmises obstinately to stand to the defence of my folly, than humbly to confess the same, infected with any such spot, as he knoweth to whom there is nothing unknown: who preserve you to his pleasure. Amen."

On the memoirs of the Earl of Northampton it is impossible for us to enter; and we reserve the consideration of the second volume, containing Wyatt's poems, to a subsequent article. For the peculiar species of knowlege displayed in the one which we now leave, we entertain no small respect; and though the biography of the Earl, as our readers will have observed, forms the portion of the volume with which we have been the least pleased, still it is the most satisfactory that is extant, including the lives written by Mr. Chalmers and others of our own day.

[*To be continued.*]

ART.

Art. II. *The Private Correspondence of Dr. Franklin.*

[*Art. concluded from our last Number, p.* 28.]

The letters in this collection which relate more particularly to American politics, and to the negotiations for peace, from their first inauspicious commencement to their final consummation, occupy a large part of the volume. Dr. Franklin was particularly anxious that not merely a formal peace should prevail between the two countries, but a thorough reconciliation; not merely a cessation of animosity and bloodshed, but a restoration of cordial amity and unsuspecting confidence. For this purpose, he thought that it would have been wise in England to have relinquished her dominion in Canada, in order to avoid those continual probabilities of enmity and dissention, which the contiguity of that country to the United States was likely to produce. We have lived to see that expectation realized; and perhaps not many years will pass away before the possession of Canada will lead to a renewal of hostilities between Great Britain and the American republic. It appears from the present volume that, when the cession of Canada to the United States was mentioned in the British cabinet, 'the Marquis of Rockingham and Lord Shelburne, though they spoke reservedly, did not seem very averse to it, but that Mr. Fox seemed startled at the proposition.' P.359. Mr. Fox had too much sagacity not to discern the violent opposition which such a proposal would have had to encounter; and he was no doubt apprehensive lest it should be the means of breaking off the negotiation. No one had scrutinized the precise bearings of the royal mind with more nicety of discernment than Mr. Fox.

During the administration of the Marquis of Rockingham in 1782, Great Britain had two negotiators at Paris, one of whom, Mr. Oswald, was sent by Lord Shelburne, and the other, Mr. Grenville, by Mr. Fox. As Mr. Fox was at that time Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, the conduct of the negotiation belonged more particularly to his department: but Lord Shelburne appears to have been ambitious of having the peace effected under his more immediate auspices; and no cordial harmony ever prevailed between his Lordship and Mr. Fox, the ingenuous simplicity of the latter not being in unison with the more tortuous character of the former. 'I find myself,' says Dr. Franklin, p. 371., 'in some perplexity with regard to these two negotiators. Mr. Oswald appears to have been the choice of Lord Shelburne, Mr. Grenville that of Mr. Secretary Fox. Lord Shelburne is said to have lately acquired much of the King's confidence: Mr. Fox calls himself the minister of the people, and it is certain his popularity is lately much increased. Lord S. seems to wish to have the management of the treaty; Mr. Fox seems to think it in his department.' This struggle was terminated by the death of the Marquis of Rockingham; when Lord Shelburne, who had secretly obtained an audience of the King, had the address to get himself appointed first Lord of the Treasury, without the concurrence of his colleagues; and Mr. Fox and his friends accordingly went out of office. The preliminaries of peace were signed at Paris on the 30th of November 1782, and the ratifications of the definitive treaty were exchanged in May 1784. Thus Dr. Franklin had the happiness of living to see that good work completed, in which he had so long and so anxiously laboured, and to the happy consummation of which he had so materially contributed by his sagacity, his diligence, his patience, his firmness, his moderation, and his probity. His diplomatic ability had not been less efficacious than the military talents of Washington, in raising his country to a high rank in the scale of independent nations; and in procuring for it a degree of practical liberty, greater than any which had yet been enjoyed by either antient or modern nations.

Before Dr. Franklin was placed in any ostensible political situation, his mind had been enriched by patient culture, and his sagacity improved by a large acquaintance with the world, and a familiar intercourse with the different ranks of society. He knew mankind well, for he had studied the human character in every variety of circumstance; and to great natural acuteness he added the benefit of multiform experience and comprehensive observation.

In June 1788 the author, writing to M. Dupont de Nemours, when the federal constitution of the United States had not been carried into execution, makes some remarks, the wisdom of which has been fully proved in the awful times in which we have been living almost ever since, when visionaries have imagined that a new constitution might be brought out perfect from the brain, like a Minerva from the head of Jupiter: — 'but,' said the reflective Franklin, before the world had been enlightened by the political experiment of the French revolution:

> 'We must not expect that a new government may be formed as a game of chess may be played, by a skilful hand, without a fault. The players of our game are so many, their ideas so different, their prejudices so strong and so various, and their particular interests independent of the general seeming so opposite, that not a move can be made that is not contested; the numerous objec-

tions confound the understanding; the wisest must agree to some unreasonable things, that reasonable ones of more consequence may be obtained, and thus chance has its share in many of the determinations, so that the play is more like *tric-trac* with a box of dice.' P. 232.

Previously to the establishment of the American independence, one of the emissaries of the English ministry endeavoured to impress Dr. Franklin with an idea that the United States would not be able to bear the expence of an independent government; to which the Doctor replied: 'A virtuous and laborious people may be cheaply governed. Determining as we do to have no offices of profit, nor any sinecures or useless appointments, so common in ancient and corrupted states, we can govern ourselves a year for the sum you pay in a single department, or for what one jobbing-contractor, by the favour of a minister, can cheat you out of in a single article.'

Alluding to the several changes in administration which had taken place in this country during the years 1782 and 1783, Dr. F. says, apparently in a tone between jest and earnest,

> 'I am not sure that in reforming the constitution which is sometimes talked of, it would not be better to make your great officers of state hereditary than to suffer the inconvenience of such frequent and total changes. Much faction and cabal would be prevented by having an hereditary first Lord of the Treasury, an hereditary Lord Chancellor, Privy Seal, President of Council, Secretary of State, first Lord of the Admiralty, &c. &c. It will not be said that the duties of these offices being important, we cannot trust to nature for the chance of requisite talents, since we have an hereditary set of judges in the last resort, the House of Peers; an hereditary King; and in a certain German University, an hereditary professor of mathematics.' P. 228.

When the Doctor was asked by the Marquis de la Fayette, in the year 1779, what conduct he thought that the English would adopt in the then state of affairs, he answered thus: 'I have but one rule to go by in judging of those people, which is that whatever is prudent for them to do they will omit; and what is most imprudent to be done, they will do it. This, like other general rules, may sometimes have its exceptions: but I think it will hold good for the most part, at least while the present ministry continues, or rather while the present —— has the choice of ministers.' P. 223. Though the above may seem rather too severe a reflection on the want of political wisdom in the ruling powers of this country, yet, when we take a retrospect of our history from the year 1789 to the present period, we have to lament but too many memorable instances of its truth.

The ensuing sentiments were written in the autumn of 1783, and addressed to Sir Edward Newenham, Bart. of Ireland, when the volunteers in that country had signalized themselves so much by their patriotic zeal:

> 'It is a pleasing reflection arising from the contemplation of our successful struggle, and the manly, spirited, and unanimous resolves at Dungannon, that liberty, which some years since appeared in danger of extinction, is now regaining the ground she had lost, that arbitrary governments are likely to become more mild and reasonable, and to expire by degrees, giving place to more equitable forms; one of the effects this of the art of printing, which diffuses so general a light, augmenting with the growing day, and of so penetrating a nature, that all the window-shutters despotism and priestcraft can oppose to keep it out prove insufficient.' P. 227.

Many adverse events, which no sagacity could foresee, have conspired to dim the prospect here portrayed, and to chill the hopes here expressed: but still liberty is certainly progressive, though its march is more slow than philanthropy might wish. The political light, which was kindled in the life-time of Franklin, and which has since been so greatly augmented in force and splendour during the tremendous collision of interests which we have witnessed in the progress of the French revolution, is too widely diffused, and too generally cherished, to be extinguished by art or to be repressed by violence. Tyranny and ignorance are boon companions, and cannot well exist apart: but tyranny and knowlege are like those chemical bodies between which no affinity can be produced.

In a letter to B. Vaughan, Esq. in March 1784, we find a weighty remark which would furnish matter for the discussion of volumes: 'The making England entirely a free port would have been the wisest step ever taken for its advantage.'

The following important fact reflects immortal honour on the memory of Franklin; and happy would it be for the world, if every statesman could justly claim as fair a wreath of laurel to bind around his brow: 'I am as much for peace as ever I was, and as heartily desirous of seeing the war ended as I was to prevent its beginning; of which your ministers know I gave a strong proof before I left England, when, in order to an accommodation, I offered at my own risque, without orders for so doing, and without knowing whether I should be owned in doing it, to pay the whole damage of destroying the tea at Boston, provided the acts made against that province were repealed. This offer was refused.' P. 264.

At p. 252. Dr. Franklin mentions a circumstance which *deserves to be investigated* by some future historian of the present reign, but which we shall quote without any observations:

'I recollect my being informed long since when in England that a certain very great personage, then young, studied much a certain book, intitled *Arcana Imperii.* I had the curiosity to procure the book and read it. There are sensible and good things in it, but some bad ones; for if I remember right, a particular King is applauded for his politically exciting a rebellion amongst his subjects at a time when they had not strength to support it, that he might in subduing them take away their privileges which were troublesome to him; and a question is formally stated and discussed, *Whether a Prince* (who), *to appease a revolt, makes promises of indemnity to the revolters, is obliged to fulfill those promises?* Honest and good men would say, Aye; but this politician says, No.'

Reformers would do well to recollect that 'to get the bad customs of a country changed, and new ones, though better, introduced, it is necessary first to remove the prejudices of the people, enlighten their ignorance, and convince them that their interest will be promoted by the proposed changes; and this is not the work of a day.' Politicians do not often contemplate a state of things like that of the Millennium, but, in a long letter from David Hartley, Esq. M. P. to Dr. Franklin, in May 1782, we find the former talking seriously of nations uniting to 'bring forward the reign of the Millennium.' Dr. F. knew mankind too well to entertain any such hope; though no person's heart ever beat with a more affectionate fondness for peace, or with a more vigorous detestation of war. As he was convinced that wars would be perpetually recurring, one of his most ardent wishes and most favourite projects was to soften the barbarism of the horrid conflict, and to render it less destructive to the interests of unoffending individuals. Thus, in July 1782, we find him making the succeeding remarks in a letter to B. Vaughan, Esq.; which, if nations could be brought to carry them into practice, would effectually tend to diminish the actual evils of war, and to increase the probabilities of a more permanent peace than any that Europe has of late years enjoyed.

'By the original law of nations, war and extirpation was the punishment of injury. Humanizing by degrees, it admitted slavery instead of death. A farther step was the exchange of prisoners instead of slavery. Another, to respect more the property of private persons under conquest, and to be content with acquired dominion. Why should not this law of nations go on improving? Ages have intervened between its several steps: but, as knowledge of late increases rapidly, why should not those steps be quickened? Why should it not be agreed to as the future law of nations, that in any war hereafter the following descriptions of men should be undisturbed, have the protection of both sides, and be permitted to follow their employments in surety; viz. 1. Cultivators of the earth, because they labour for the subsistence of mankind. 2. Fishermen, for the same reason. 3. Merchants and traders in unarmed ships who accommodate different nations, by communicating and exchanging the necessaries and conveniences of life. 4. Artists and mechanics inhabiting and working in open towns. It is hardly necessary to add, that the hospitals of enemies should be unmolested: they ought to be assisted. In short, I would have nobody fought with but those who are paid for fighting. If obliged to take corn from the farmer, friend or enemy, I would pay him for it: the same for the fish or goods of the others.' P. 388.

In January 1783, we find this wise and good man communicating some proposition to Mr. Oswald for the purpose of attaining the same philanthropic objects as those above mentioned. His remarks on privateering merit serious attention.

'The practice of robbing merchants on the high seas, a remnant of the ancient piracy, though it may be accidentally beneficial to particular persons, is far from being profitable to all engaged in it, or to the nation that authorizes it. In the beginning of a war, some rich ships not upon their guard are surprized and taken. This encourages the first adventurers to fit out more armed vessels, and many others to do the same. But the enemy at the same time become more careful, arm their merchant-ships better, and render them not so easy to be taken; they go also more under protection of convoys; thus, while the privateers to take them are multiplied, the vessels subject to be taken and the chances of profit are diminished, so that many cruizes are made wherein the expences overgo the gains; and as is the case in other lotteries, though particulars have got prizes, the mass of adventurers are losers, the whole expence of fitting out all the privateers during a war being much greater than the whole amount of goods taken. Then there is the national loss of all the labour of so many men during the time they have been employed in robbing; who besides spend what they get in riot, drunkenness, and debauchery, lose their habits of industry, are rarely fit for any sober business after a peace, and serve only to increase the number of highwaymen and housebreakers. Even the undertakers who have been fortunate are by sudden wealth led into expensive living, the habit of which continues when the means of supporting it cease, and finally ruins them. A just punishment for their having wantonly and unfeelingly ruined many honest innocent traders and their families, whose subsistence was employed in serving the common interests of mankind.' P. 420, 421.

Undoubtedly, the practice of privateering is an addition of private robbery to public devastation, and is in reality no more justifiable between maritime nations than it would be *between two* continental powers, when in a state of hostility, to infest each other's territory not only with regular armies but with desultory bands of pick-pockets, footpads, highwaymen, and housebreakers. Individuals, considered by themselves, are usually more or less under the influence of moral considerations: but, when they come to act together in large bodies or as parts of a national mass, they seem to be destitute of all moral sense, and with the most frozen insensibility to violate collectively the plainest precepts of justice and humanity, for which they nevertheless individually entertain the most vivid regard.

It was the opinion of Dr. Franklin that the European nations, which have sugar-islands subject to their dominion, would be more benefited by the loss than they are by the possession; for, as he observes, 'the cost of sugar to the consumer in those nations consists not merely in the price he pays for it by the pound, but in the accumulated charge of all the taxes he pays in every war to fit out fleets and maintain troops for the defence of the islands that raise the sugar, and the ships that bring it home.' (P. 421.) He expresses his conviction that sugar actually costs the consumer less at Vienna or Moscow, where the sovereigns have no sugar-islands, than it costs the citizens of London or Paris, though they are exempted from the charges of transport after the arrival of the commodity in their ports:

> 'And I sincerely believe,' says he, 'that if France and England were to decide by throwing dice which should have the whole of their sugar-islands, the loser in the throw would be the gainer. The future expence of defending them would be saved; the sugars would be bought cheaper by all Europe if the inhabitants might make it without interruption, and whoever imported the sugar, the same revenue might be raised by duties at the custom-houses of the nation that consumed it. And on the whole I conceive it would be better for the nations now possessing sugar-colonies to give up their claim to them, let them govern themselves, and put them under the protection of all the powers of Europe as neutral countries, open to the commerce of all, the profits of the present monopolies being by no means equivalent to the expence of maintaining them.'

We have now given ample specimens of the proofs which this correspondence affords, of the moral and political wisdom with which the mind of the writer was imbued. It was a treasure, from which he was perpetually drawing large stores for the general benefit. No narrow or selfish considerations appear ever to have biassed his opinions, or to have influenced his conduct. In the intercourse of private life, he laboured to promote the interest of his friends and acquaintance; and in his public conduct, though he zealously supported the rights and liberties of the state which he represented, he was by no means indifferent to those of other nations: indeed, the principles which he cherished and maintained were such as tend to establish the peace, the freedom, and the prosperity of every nation under heaven.

Art. III. *Useful Knowledge:* or a Familiar and Explanatory Account of the various Productions of Nature, Mineral, Vegetable, and Animal, which are chiefly employed for the Use of Man. Illustrated with numerous Figures, and intended as a Work both of Instruction and Reference. By the Rev. William Bingley, A.M. F.L.S., late of Peterhouse, Cambridge, and Author of Animal Biography. 12mo. 3 Vols. About 300 Pages in each. 1l. 1s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1816.

That the cultivation of an acquaintance with the objects of nature is attended with many and important benefits, is a position which needs only to be stated to obtain our conviction of its truth. It requires, surely, no labour of argument to demonstrate that an occupation of this description has a direct tendency to rouse and to gratify the principle of curiosity; that it is eminently calculated to mature and improve our powers of taste; that it influences the enlargement and melioration of our intellectual powers; that it generates and fosters those dispositions of mental composure and serenity which result from contemplation and reflection, and which, if not absolutely virtuous, are at least akin to virtue, and conspire to its production and maintenance; and that it contributes, more powerfully than the pursuit of any other branch of human knowlege, to stimulate and invigorate our sentiments of piety and religion. The proofs of the existence of a Supreme Cause, deduced from abstract and metaphysical argumentation, are capable of being apprehended only by a few individuals of leisure and learning: but the works of creation exhibit, in language intelligible to all, the most irrefragable and astonishing displays of power, design, wisdom, and goodness. It is impossible to examine a blade of grass, or the lowest modification of animal existence, without reflecting that the models of their organization, which have remained unaltered for thousands of years, could never result from blind or fortuitous impulse. The kind provisions which have been instituted for the preservation of the various species, with the countless instances of the wonderful adaptation of means to ends, cannot fail to inspire us with the consoling and animating truth that the Deity exercises his paternal protection over all the creatures which he has made, and that not an atom can change its form or aspect without his permission.

Independently, however, of these more dignified, and exalted views of the subject, the study of natural history is intimately connected with the wants, comforts, and accommodations of civilized society. The food which we eat, the raiment which we wear, the roof which shelters us from the storm, — the materials, in short, of manufactures, commerce, agriculture, and the arts — are ultimately reducible to substances which appertain to the mineral, vegetable, or animal kingdom. Now, if we rightly comprehend the title and texture of the work which has suggested these observations, its main object is to unfold some of the principal direct and practical advantages that mankind derive from the various properties which have been ascertained in the diversified productions of nature; or, in other words, to trace an outline of the economics of natural history. Such a design is at once obvious and important; yet we are not aware that it has been executed, in a systematic form, by any writer of distinguised ability or reputation. The statements and enumerations presented by Professor Morelot, in his treatise intitled, *Histoire Naturelle appliquée à la Chimie, aux Arts, aux différens genres de l'Industrie, et aux Besoins Personnels de la Vie*, are not only very incomplete and superficial, but are mixed up with some fanciful dogmas concerning the production of all the solid parts of the globe from the wrecks of pre-existing organized beings, which originated in the waters.

The present reverend author, who has more than once attracted our favourable notice, very judiciously refrains from the introduction of theoretical discussion; and the character and value of these volumes would not have been impaired, if he had exercised the same laudable reserve with respect to those curtailed explanations, and those defective definitions, which he has so copiously blended with the more appropriate portions of the work. The productions of nature themselves, and the use to which they are subservient, are easily susceptible of distinct treatment; and any thing like a satisfactory account of both is altogether incompatible with the circumscribed limits of Mr. Bingley's plan. Such a condensed view, therefore, as he seems to have contemplated, should have proceeded either on a presumed knowlege of the objects selected for consideration, or on a scheme of regular reference to the proper sources of information. Besides, of elementary descriptions and elucidations of minerals, plants, and animals, we have now an abundant provision, while their useful properties have been but partially or incidentally detailed; and we may add that the record of a few short characters is calculated to convey only superfluous information to adepts, and no adequate or available instruction to the uninitiated. The allotment of a volume, also, to each of the kingdoms of nature, when the relative extent of each is considered, and the adjustment of the mineralogical nomenclature to the dimensions of a minikin table, will strike the discerning reader as somewhat too *Procrustesian*. With regard to the account of *Rocks*, which is squeezed within the compass of eight little pages, we may, without any breach of critical charity, be permitted to assert that it is rather deficient in '*Useful Knowlege.*' At the same time, nothing is farther from our intention than to defraud Mr. Bingley of that tribute of commendation, which is due to the exercise of diligence and fidelity in the processes of compilation and abridgment. Novelty of observation, and richness of sentiment, are alike foreign to his purposes who labours to compress into a regular series the statements of matter of fact that lie scattered in many volumes. Hence a certain degree of dryness of manner unavoidably attaches to compositions of this description: but, in the present instance, it is amply redeemed by the comprehensiveness of the topics embraced, and by the clear and unaffected language in which they are communicated. We ought, likewise, to bear in mind that systematic epitomes of any department of knowlege are not framed for continuous perusal, but for study at stated intervals; and that they sufficiently fulfil their destination when they contribute to guide the exertions of the learner. Mr. B. observes:

> 'It must be remarked that the reader will not find here inserted an account of every production of nature, which is employed for the use of man, nor even all the uses of such objects as are described. The most important of the productions, and the principal of the uses, are all that he trusts can reasonably be required in a work of the present extent. On this ground it is that a great number of animals, which are in request only for food, have been wholly omitted.
>
> 'The figures that are inserted have been drawn upon as small and economical a scale as was compatible with a sufficiently accurate representation of the objects to which they relate.'

Though avowedly incomplete, therefore, and presenting few allurements of taste or elegance, these volumes may be safely recommended, especially to the young, as an introduction to the study of natural history, with a reference to the applications of that science to the purposes of life. In this respect, they are well deserving of the attention of parents and the teachers of youth; for they contain much, varied, and authentic information, in a very tangible shape, and divested (as far as it may be) of technical phraseology.—A few extracts, from different parts of the work, may suffice as a sample of the general manner in which it is conducted.

'Carbon is a name given to the pure inflammable part of charcoal. It is very plentifully diffused throughout nature, since it enters into the composition of several minerals, and of all animal and vegetable bodies. The purest form under which carbon is known to exist is in that most inestimable of all gems, the diamond (50). It may, however, be obtained sufficiently pure for all common purposes by burning a piece of wood, covered with sand, in a vessel called a crucible. In combination with oxygen (21) it forms carbonic acid (26). It is a chief component part of pit-coal (122), petroleum (117), and other bituminous substances.

'The properties of charcoal are the same, from whatever wood it may be made. One of the most singular of these is, that it is not liable to decay by age. Hence it was customary with the ancients to char or burn the outside of stakes, or other wood, which were to be driven into the ground, or placed in water. It may be preserved without injury for an almost indefinite length of time; and in the ancient tombs of the inhabitants of northern nations entire pieces of charcoal are at this day frequently discovered.

'Besides the great use of charcoal in the composition of gunpowder, and to artists and manufacturers of different kinds, it has lately been employed with considerable success in correcting the rancid and disagreeable smell of train oil, so as to render it fit to be burnt in chamber-lamps; and several manufactories of this oil have lately been established in the neighbourhood of London. Newly made charcoal, if rolled up in clothes which have contracted a disagreeable odour, will effectually destroy it; and if boiled with meat beginning to putrify will take away the taint.

'This substance is used by artists in the polishing of brass and copper-plates, for the drawing of outlines, and numerous other purposes. When purified it forms perhaps the best tooth-powder that is known. The mode of doing this is to reduce it to powder, wash it repeatedly with pure water, and then dry it by means of a strong heat in close vessels. This heat expels the foreign contents with which it is impregnated; but however intense, if the vessels are closed, it in no respects alters the quality of the charcoal.

'The vapour of burning charcoal is extremely pernicious; and persons exposed to it in confined rooms are sometimes destroyed in a very short time. The best remedy is immediately to take them into the strongest draft of cold air that can be obtained, to loose all their garments, and apply volatile spirits to their nostrils.'—

'Aloes are an extensive tribe of plants, some of which are not more than a few inches, whilst others are thirty feet and upwards, in height. All the leaves are fleshy, thick, and more or less spinous at the edges or extremity.

'These plants, which are chiefly inhabitants of hot climates, have flowers of a single petal, the mouth expanded, the base nectariferous, and the filaments of the stamens inserted into the receptacle.

'Some of the larger kinds of aloes are of great importance to the inhabitants of countries in which they grow. Beset as the *leaves* are with strong spines, they form an impenetrable fence. The negroes of the western coast of Africa make ropes and weave nets of the fibrous part of these leaves. The Hottentots hollow out the *stems* of one of the kinds into quivers for their arrows. In Jamaica there is a species of aloe which supplies the inhabitants with bow-strings, fishing-lines, and materials from which they are able to weave stockings and hammocks. An aloe which grows in the kingdom of Mexico is applied by the inhabitants to almost every purpose of life. It serves as hedges for inclosures: its trunk supplies the place of timber for the roofs of houses; and its leaves the place of tiles. From this plant they make their thread, needles, and various articles of clothing and cordage; whilst from its juices they manufacture wine, sugar, and vinegar. Some parts of it they eat, and others they apply in medicine.

'The *juice* of aloes was formerly used in eastern countries in embalming, to preserve dead bodies from putrefaction; and as the resinous part of this juice is not soluble in water, it is sometimes adopted in hot climates as a preservative to ship's bottoms against the attack of marine worms. One ounce of it mixed with turpentine, tallow, and white lead, is considered [as] sufficient for covering about two superficial feet of plank; and about twelve pounds [as] sufficient for a vessel of fifty tons burthen. In proof of the efficacy of this method, two planks of equal thickness, and cut from the same tree, were placed under water, one of them in its natural state, and the other smeared with this composition. They were suffered to continue in the water eight months, and when, at the end of that time, they were taken out, the former was perforated in every part, and in a state of absolute decay; whilst the latter was as perfect as at first. In the East Indies the juice of these plants is used as a varnish to preserve wood from the attacks of destructive insects; and skins, and even living animals, are sometimes smeared with it for the same purpose.

'There is a tract of mountains about fifty miles north of the Cape of Good Hope, which is wholly covered with aloes. Among the Mahometans, and particularly in Egypt, the aloe is a kind of symbolic plant: it is dedicated to the offices of religion, and pilgrims on their return from Mecca suspend it over their doors, as a declaration that they have performed that holy journey.'—

'THE HIPPOPOTAMUS, or RIVER-HORSE, (*Hippopotamus amphibius*) is an African quadruped of immense bulk, with large head, extremely wide mouth, strong teeth, and thick and short legs, each terminated by four hoofs.

'The body is of brownish colour, and covered with short and thinly set hair. One of these animals, which M. le Vaillant killed in the south of Africa, measured nearly eleven feet in length, and about nine feet in circumference.

'In the immediate neighbourhood of rivers in several parts of Africa, even as far south as the Cape of Good Hope, the Hippopotamus is occasionally seen. Notwithstanding his bulk and strength he is an animal of considerable timidity, and whenever he is surprized he plunges into the water and walks about at the bottom with great ease, rising to the surface about once every ten minutes to breathe. He feeds on plants of various kinds, and sometimes proves very destructive in the plantations, not only by the quantity of food which he actually devours, but also by his treading down and crushing with his feet much more than he eats.

'The hippopotamus is one of those animals whose *tusks* are used as ivory; and from their always preserving their original whiteness and purity, they are considered even superior to the tusks of the elephant (21). They are from twelve to fourteen inches in length, and weigh from six to ten pounds each. Dentists sometimes manufacture them into artificial teeth, for which they are well adapted. Of the *hide*, which in some parts is nearly two inches thick, the inhabitants of Africa make excellent whips, which after a little use become very pliable. The *flesh*, when the animals are in good condition, is said to be tender and well flavoured, particularly that of the parts near the breast. It is even sometimes admitted to the tables of the colonists at the Cape of Good Hope. The Hottentots consider it so great a delicacy that they will eat it even in a half putrid state. Professor Thunberg states that he one day passed a Hottentot's tent, which had been pitched for the purpose of consuming the body of an hippopotamus that had been killed some time before. He says that the inhabitants of the tent were in the midst of such stench, that the travellers could hardly pass them without being suffocated. The *feet* are considered peculiarly fine eating; and the *tongue*, when salted and dried, is in great esteem at the Cape.'

Mr. Bingley would have laid the student under still greater obligations, if, at the beginning or end of each article, he had pointed out the authentic sources of more detailed information; and if he had specified the precise proportions of ingredients employed in the different mixtures or manipulations to which he alludes. His inaccuracies and defects of thought, or expression, when compared with the amount and diversity of the ideas communicated, are far from numerous. Should he be inclined, however, in the event of a second impression, to avail himself of our friendly suggestions, the ensuing annotations are very cordially at his service.

Vol. i. p. 22. 'It [Strontian] occurs in great abundance in different parts of the world,' &c. The carbonate of this substance is by no means a fossil of common occurrence; and it has become scarce even in the repositories in which it was first observed. The sulphate, or celestine, has been found in a greater number of places; yet it is far from being very plentifully diffused.—P. 49. From the list of topazes remarkable for their weight or dimensions, those which were discovered some years ago in the north of Scotland, and which considerably exceed the largest formerly known, should not have been excluded. — P. 118. *Roche* is stated to be a village in *Styria;* a *clerical* error, perhaps, for *Syria*, in which country the first alum-manufactory, it has been often alleged, was established, at a place called *Rocca:* but no such Syrian town or village seems to be known to the most accurate geographers; and the conjectures of the learned are divided between *Racca*, on the Euphrates, and the present *Edessa*, which was formerly called *Roha*, *Raha*, or *Ruka*, and still retains the occasional appellation of *Roccha*. Both these places are situated in *Mesopotamia*, and not in *Syria:* but the latter division may, some centuries ago, have been understood with greater latitude of acceptation than in modern times. The *rock-alum*, or, more correctly, *roche-alum*, which is still imported from the Levant, is manufactured at Foya Nova, near Smyrna, and also in the vicinity of Constantinople.—P. 155. *Idria* is incorrectly placed in *Bohemia.* — P. 170. That the Psalmist, in the passage here cited, 'evidently alludes to the falling of meteoric stones,' may justly be questioned. The ingenious Mr. Edward King, indeed, gives the same interpretation to the expression *coals of fire;* and the term *ανθρακες*, employed by the cautious Seventy, may be supposed to countenance the conjecture that real hard bodies, in a state of ignition, were intended to be denoted. In the verse immediately preceding, however, the same expression occurs, and obviously requires no such interpretation; and the phrase seems to have been only a figurative mode of intimating vivid lightning, as, even in the sober latitudes of the north, and in our ordinary unimpassioned discourse, we talk of *thunderbolts* and *balls of fire*, without any reference to solid matter. In the eleventh verse of the tenth chapter of the book of Joshua, which Mr. King also cites, the expression *great stones* is less equivocal than *coals of fire:* but the concluding clause scarcely leaves room to doubt that these *great stones* were really *hail-stones*, or rather, perhaps, lumps of ice, consolidated in the colder regions of the atmosphere; such as occasionally fall in hot countries, and such as actually alarmed the inhabitants of Paris and its neighbourhood in the spring of 1788. At all events, the slaughter of the Canaanites is represented as resulting from the special interposition of Divine power; and the consideration of real miracles is irrelevant to the present question. — P. 214. The alleged principal cause of the bitterness of sea-water, namely, the putrefaction of animal and vegetable particles, is scarcely in unison with the statement in the next paragraph: 'Sea-water, taken from a great depth, has not the bitterness which the water of the surface has; it is only saline:' but, as the particles naturally subside, and accumulate at the bottom, the deepest waters should, on the author's supposition, be the most nauseous, especially as they lie beyond the sphere of the superficial agitation. — P. 215. Mr. Bingley again alludes to 'the putrefaction of the immense mass of animal and vegetable substances:' but, in the water, as on the land, are not means ordained for constantly counteracting the tendency to corruption, and do not myriads of animals and animalcules eagerly consume every atom of organized matter that comes within their reach? Do we not find, that even in tracts of fresh water, as in the great lakes of America, no sensible contamination of the fluid takes place from putrid animal or vegetable remains? — The presence of sulphate of magnesia in sea-water may suffice to account for its bitter savour. — In the descriptive catalogue of the principal mineral and thermal waters, we expected to have found some short account of those of *Barèges*, *Bagnières*, *Plombières*, &c.

Vol. ii. p. 70. 'The earliest introduction of the vine into the western parts of Europe is stated to have been about the year 280, under the immediate sanction of Probus, the Roman Emperor,' &c. This is, doubtless, an anachronism; since the vine appears to have been cultivated in some parts of Gaul when that country was first invaded by the Romans, and to have flourished there in the days of Strabo and of Vespasian. It is moreover recorded that, on account of a famine which occurred in the 92d year of the Christian æra, Domitian caused one half of the vines to be extirpated.—P. 75. *Hock* is more accurately deduced from *Hocheim*, near which the best Rhenish wines are produced, than from *Hockstedt* in Saxony. — *Malmsey*, in like manner, is derived not from the name of a Greek island, but from *Malvasia*, or *Malvesia*, in the Morea. — P. 142. The common rhubarb, we are told, 'grows wild on the mountains of Rhodope, *in France*, from whence it was first brought *into Europe*,' &c.—P. 190. The *digitalis purpurea* is termed a *brilliant* and a *splendid* plant: but the mere circumstance of its being tall and sightly scarcely intitles it to such epithets; especially since, like most poisonous vegetables, it has somewhat of a lurid physiognomy. —P.202. 'The next and most important improvements in the manufacture of cotton were made at Cromford, in the county of Derby, by the *present* Sir Richard Arkwright, who, in 1768, first introduced the method of *spinning* cotton by machinery.' Now, it so happens that the ingenious Knight here commemorated departed this life nearly twenty-five years ago.

Vol. iii. With the more prominent features of the animal kingdom, Mr. Bingley (in consequence, we may fairly presume, of his former labours,) appears to be more familiar than with those of the mineral and vegetable departments; and in his third volume we meet with many though unavoidable repetitions of facts, or descriptions, that were contained in his other zoological writings. Equally unavoidable, perhaps, was the suppression of many important particulars, the insertion of which would have considerably extended the original design. At page 70., however, he is needlessly careful to inform us that moles, which have been reputed both deaf and blind, 'possess every requisite organ *both for sight and vision.*'—P. 215. 'As gannets and their eggs are a principal support of the inhabitants of St. Kilda throughout the year, they are preserved for this purpose in a *frozen state* in small pyramidal stone-buildings, covered with turf and ashes.' The ceaseless nature of our vocation being incompatible with the luxury of an excursion to St. Kilda, we cannot positively disprove such an assertion: but, at the same time, when we reflect that this forlorn island is more assailed by wind and rain than by frost, we can scarcely believe that geese may be preserved congealed on a rock in the Atlantic, as at Moscow or Archangel.—P. 255. 'The *gill charr* are considered in highest perfection, and are caught in greatest numbers, from the end of September until the end of November, and the *case charr* about the month of May. *The latter are seldom taken after April.*' If this last sentence be meant to apply to the *case charr*, and we can perceive no other legitimate antecedent, the two statements are obviously at variance.

We would also beg leave to recommend for revision such careless or incorrect expressions as the following: '*A slaty strata*:'—'the smoke remaining in the gas *render* its surface visible:'—'it is *only considered* inferior to the diamond,' for, it is considered inferior only to the diamond: —'preserving the whole of created nature in *their* proper classes of existence:'—'the whole *are*:'—'*from hence*,' '*from thence*,' and '*from whence*,' though too much sanctioned by usage, are not less tautological than *to hither*, *to whither*, &c.—'The principal use *for* which camomile flowers are applied:'—*eadable*, which occurs twice, seems to possess no advantage over *eatable*, or *edible*, both of which are already current:—'are capable of great attachment *for* those:'—'oily and *coagulate* parts:'—'as an *insigna*,' &c.—We have been the more minute in these verbal remarks, because we are desirous that the work to which they refer may be adopted in our seminaries of education; and consequently that, in point of composition, it should be rendered as faultless as it may be.

Art. IV. *Lectures on the Philosophy of Modern History*, delivered in the University of Dublin by George Miller, D.D. M.R.I.A., Rector of Derryvoylan, and late Fellow of Trinity College, Dublin, and Lecturer on Modern History. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 1124. 1l. 4s. Boards. Printed in Dublin for Murray, London. 1816.

A first object, in a critical notice of such a work as the present, is to give the reader an idea of what is meant by the phrase " philosophy of history," and we shall endeavour to do this in the words of Dr. Miller himself; who says, ' My object is to review not so much a series of historical events, as their combinations; to trace in successive transactions those mutual relations which constitute them the parts of a great system, and to discover in them the marks of the government of an all-wise Providence.' This is assuredly high matter; calling not only for the survey of the transactions of a very extensive period, but for the application of a mind deeply conversant with political reasoning on the widest scale. It is therefore much to be regretted that these volumes have not been filled with a more interesting part of history, the materials of Dr. Miller's work being comprized under the following heads:

1. History of the Arabians, from the Birth of Mohammed in the Year 569 to the Year 1258.
2. Italy, from the End of the Western Empire to the Year 1308.
3. France, from the Reign of Clovis to 1303.
4. England, from the Renunciation of the Romans in 409 to the Death of Edward II. in 1307.
5. Germany, from 840 to 1308.
6. Spain, from 472 to 1308.

On looking at this list, we lament that the author did not venture to adopt the hint of a French writer, that the true mode of fixing the attention of the reader was to begin at a recent period and go backward, publishing successive volumes in the way followed by Hume in his History of England. On his present plan, Dr. M. has the disadvantage of appearing before the public with the history of the dark ages, the period of all others least attractive, whether we consider them with reference to the embellishments of poetry or to the serious disquisitions of the investigator of official records; and we have to add the unfortunate circumstance of the narrative being so compressed, as to give it no greater interest than that which is commonly excited by a series of annals. The author passes from one subject to another before the attention can become engaged, and is obliged to drop a distinguished individual exactly at the time at which our curiosity begins to be awakened in his cause. These remarks apply to the whole work; and how is it possible that the case can be otherwise in an attempt to give, within the short compass of a couple of octavo volumes, a sketch of the history of the world for nearly a thousand years? The consequence is that, notwithstanding the extensive reading and liberal disposition of the author, the book is by no means likely to obtain the general notice of the public. We turned with particular interest to such passages as the history of the republics of Northern Italy during the 12th and 13th centuries, in the hope that the importance of the events might have supplied a counterpoise to the very defective plan of the narrative: but here, as in other parts, the reader will find himself exposed to incessant disappointments from the naked and jejune character of the composition. The only favourable qualification that we can make relates to our own country; in which portion (vol. ii. p. 108.) Dr. M. succeeds in giving a certain share of novelty, and even of attraction, to his relation, by passing over the known events of history, and pointing our attention to changes in the civil condition of the nation, particularly to the progressive rise of parliaments.

Let us avoid, therefore, to dwell longer on the narrative division of these volumes, and advert to the philosophical department; or, in other words, to the general views of which the study of history is, in Dr. Miller's opinion, susceptible. He expresses a conviction, (vol. i. p. 49.) that 'while a general prevalence of good, and a general progress of improvement, are discoverable in the history of man, the particular events may be so combined and explained as to constitute one great drama of the Divine government, all the parts of which cooperate to the result.'

'That God is one, and wise, and good, is the conclusion of the philosopher, who surveys the arrangement of the material world. The same would be the conviction of the political enquirer, if he could discover that the agencies of men have been combined like those of physical nature, and that wisdom and goodness alike characterize their combination.'—

'The former is indeed less capable of certainty, because the improveable nature of the beings who are its objects, requires that it should be administered by a progressive plan, and therefore it cannot be susceptible of the strict uniformity, which establishes the principles of physical science. But though we are not able to reduce to precise and invariable rules the conduct of God's moral providence, which is thus essentially progressive, it may, from time to time, discover itself to our understandings in the actual completion of his plans.'

Some progress has already been made towards this highly desirable object by the historians who flourished in the last century:

'The philosophical historians of modern times have indeed made preparation for constructing a philosophy of modern history, which without such assistance might have been impracticable. When Voltaire, with the rapid glances of his comprehensive but desultory and unfaithful view, had, in his essay on general history, given a sketch of the various revolutions which had succeeded to the ancient empire, and, in his history of the age of Lewis the Fourteenth, had ascribed to the moral circumstances of society their full share of importance, Robertson, with the cool accuracy of an historian, and with sounder and purer principles, surveyed the earlier progress of society in modern Europe, as introductory to a connected narrative of its most interesting crisis, and Hume, with a philosophical power of mind, which all his partiality for the Stuarts and his lamentable rejection at least of revealed religion were unable to suppress, analysed the history of the noblest of its political consitutions. And though the subject of the history of Gibbon relates to ancient ages, yet as it reaches to the frontier of the modern period, and his excursive genius has frequently wandered beyond the proper limit of his plan, his collections, however blemished by the tincture of a mind not only sceptical but corrupted, are of considerable utility to the student of a later era. French histories also have been composed of almost every European government, and subject of historical enquiry; and the spirit of philosophizing, which Voltaire had so imperfectly introduced, has been fostered by many of their authors, though with very various success.'

Dr. M., however, is persuaded that we may go much farther, and that it is practicable to present the whole of history as a single though complex object to the reflecting mind. He attempts to exemplify this theory by a variety of references to the most striking facts in antient and modern history. We begin with the following, taken from

Antient History.—'In the interior arrangement of Greece, a correspondence may be discovered between its local circumstances and its splendid destination. Numerous and various as were its communities, they may be regarded as constituting but two assemblages, or rather the others may all be considered as subordinate to the efforts of two distinguished states. The elegant Athenians, to whom, as Cicero has pleaded, the world was indebted for the arts of life, for learning, laws, religion, and even for humanity itself, and the half-barbarous Spartans, who seem to have been placed at their side, to urge them to continued exertion by the rude violence of merely military habits; these are the objects which attract the notice of the historical enquirer, as they were the ruling powers of the political combinations of Greece. And, in direct conformity to this distribution of the Grecian states, we find the warlike Spartans enclosed within the Peloponnesus, as the appropriate stage of their military achievements, and political ascendancy; and themselves secured in its southern region by a chain of almost impassable mountains: the Athenians, on the other hand, whose efforts were to be stimulated to their utmost possible excitement, we see exposed in an exterior situation, and doomed to encounter all the violence of the Persian invasion, and to maintain the last struggle of Grecian independence against the Macedonians. And while Attica was exposed to the discipline of an unprotected frontier, it was also subjected to another stimulating agency in the comparative sterility of its soil; nor does it appear to have been particularly favoured by the bounty of nature, except in the abundance of marble with which its mountains supplied its artists. In such a district it was that Greece displayed her intellectual triumph. Others of her states cultivated the arts, and even the sciences, with success, but Athens alone had schools of philosophy; and the inhabitants of Attica were enabled to acquire the elements of moral wisdom, by only perusing the inscriptions of the statues, which bordered the public roads, and ornamented the villages.'

We have here a specimen of Dr. M.'s system; and we are in the next place to consider the very interesting question whether he has succeeded in establishing it. We highly applaud his motives, and are not without hopes that our posterity, in an age of farther discovery and more comprehensive views, may be fortunate in reconciling the course of historical events with the beneficence of the all-wise Governor: but we cannot flatter ourselves that either the author before us, or any writer of the present time, is likely to arrive at a satisfactory solution of so difficult an inquiry. As long as Dr. Miller adheres to general allegation, his reasoning is plausible and captivating: but he no sooner descends to particulars than we discover the frail foundation of this visionary edifice. Why should it be necessary that 'the Spartans should be placed in the vicinity of the Athenians as the means of urging the latter to continued exertion?' Had not the Athenians, like other nations, a sufficient stimulus in their personal wants to the exertion of all their faculties? Again, why was it necessary that the Spartans should be inclosed within the Peloponnesus as the appropriate stage of their military achievements, or secured on their frontiers by formidable mountains? Have we not seen military states in every variety of climate and situation? The fact is that the Spartans were by no means confined in their efforts for political ascendancy to the peninsula; nor did the mountainous ridge on their frontier influence their military enterprizes during the greatest part of their career. Similar fallacies occur in treating of the Roman history: the decline of that state ought not to be ascribed (as in p. 162.) to the security inspired by the fall of Carthage, but to defects inherent in her constitution, and the opening consequently given to abuses. How can a people so ignorant and illiterate as the early Romans be with any propriety said (p. 163.) to have 'fixed their attention *from the outset*, on the formation of a legislative system?' Is it not much more probable that their government was, like our own, the result of a rude beginning, of a slow progress, and of a gradual application of the rules suggested by experience?

Modern History. — We come now to a different period of history: but the change of æra cannot, we are sorry to say, be accompanied by any diminution of our critical animadversions. 'The Mohammedan states on the coast of Africa constituted,' says Dr. M., (p. 170.) 'a chain of communication, by which the great empire of the Arabians acted on the modern system of the West:' but in what way can such coarse barbarians as the Arabians be seriously said to have acted on any system? Did they communicate any useful discovery to Italy or France, the only countries capable in those days of turning it to account? Was not their agency or influence confined to one kingdom, and that a kingdom which ranks at present among the most backward of the whole European commonwealth? — Again, says Dr. M., in a different passage of his book, the bigotry of the Spanish government may be considered in the history of religion as one of the supports of the papacy; while, with a view to trade, the political depression of the nation may be stated to have removed out of the way of Holland and England all commercial competitions, and to have freed France from the necessity of a struggle for continental empire: but the depressed trade of Spain could never be favourable to the progress of that of Holland and England, if any truth belongs to the now generally admitted principle that the "increased wealth of a country tends to augment the wealth of all who have intercourse with it;" nor could the political weakness of that kingdom be said to extricate France from a struggle for continental empire, when it became, in fact, the grand temptation to the endless wars of Louis XIV. These calculations are on a par with the curious notion, that the existence of the Moorish pirates on the coast of the Mediterranean may be explained as 'favourable to the formation of a great commercial system, which should direct its activity to the navigation of the ocean.'

Effects of Climate.—Another point, on which we differ from Dr. M., regards the effect of climate on national character, and his singular idea that the Deity placed comparatively little land on the south side of the equator, for the sake of preventing the existence of two systems of countries.

'The first observation which presents itself, when we inspect a map of the earth, is that almost the whole of the dry land is included in the northern hemisphere, instead of being equally distributed, as might naturally have been expected, between the northern and southern regions. We perceive on the southern side of the equator only the greater part of South America, a comparatively small portion of Africa, New Holland, and some islands: in the northern division of the earth have been placed Europe, Asia, Northern Africa, North America, and the West Indies; all those parts of the earth which have ever acquired importance, and nearly the whole of what has been assigned as the habitation of our species. On the one side of the equator therefore is placed almost the entire scene of human activity; while the other is almost wholly abandoned to a waste of waters.

'But if we attribute any influence to climate, this observation will be found consistent with that principle of unity, which it is proposed to illustrate. If climate be one of the causes affecting and modifying human society, an unity of plan would be irreconcilable to the existence of two distinct and correspondent sets of climates, each possessing a similar distribution of land and water. Two systems of countries would thus be formed instead of one; the temperate region of a southern system would oppose its improvement to that of the temperate region of the north; and the unavoidable collision of two interfering combinations, while it obstructed the progress of each, would confound every conception of a common superintendence, controlling and combining their operations. Such a collision is however effectually precluded by the actual distribution of the surface of the earth, as in the disposition of the land and water provision has been made for but a single system. The habitations of men are comprised under a single set of climates, those belonging to the other hemisphere being too inconsiderable to be more than appendages of the rest; and, while only so much of the water is admitted into the northern region, as might be necessary for the due separation of its countries, the southern has been rendered almost exclusively the repository of this element.'—

'In the older part of the world again we observe a very considerable diversity between the connections, by which the three continents are united; Asia being joined to Europe by an extensive tract of land, while it communicates with Africa only by a narrow isthmus. The northern region of the united continents is indeed far the most considerable tract of unbroken land to be found upon the surface of the earth, it being only in length that we can compare with it the continent of America: and this ample space appears to have been laid out for the purpose of facilitating the migrations of savage tribes, which could not accomplish maritime expeditions.'

On the first part of this extract, we decline to make any animadversion, the passage being perfectly on a level with the singular effusions of M. de St. Pierre in his *Harmonies de la Nature*:

Nature: but, the second paragraph not appearing at first altogether so absurd, it is proper to fix our attention on it for a few moments, and to consider what reason we have for supposing that the wide extent of land along the north of Asia 'appears to have been laid out for facilitating the migrations of savage tribes, which could not accomplish maritime expeditions.' The question, however, will not detain us long; for we should be dull indeed not to discover that the *first* inhabitants of the shores of the Mediterranean must have been just as barbarous as those of the north of Asia; and is it not likely that the latter would long ere this time have rivalled the former, had they been placed in the midst of the easy communication afforded by a tranquil sea and a number of contiguous islands?

To these examples of deficient accuracy, it would be easy to make many additions; in short, we should scarcely find an end, were we to pursue Dr. M. throughout his four introductory lectures into all the visions which his fertile imagination has created when in quest of arguments for his favourite theory. He is right only when he reasons from ascertained facts, and when he confines his conclusions to a statement of that which exists or has existed; instead of wandering into the range of fancy, and rendering his supposed discoveries subservient to the erection of a series of refinements. We recognize a degree of truth, for instance, in the remark that antient Greece was in some respects a miniature of modern Europe; both being maritime regions, both diversified in their political constitutions, and yet both preserving a certain similarity in point of civilization. It was of such statements as this, cautiously expressed and limited to a few conclusions, that Dr. M.'s reasoning ought to have consisted. His lectures would then have formed an entertaining and instructive commentary on the known events of history; and he should have ventured into the field of narrative only when a new principle was to be illustrated, or a new colour given to facts that had hitherto been misunderstood. Reverting to the example of Athens quoted by Dr. Miller, we shall find that the rapid growth and unparalleled celebrity of that interesting republic were owing partly to physical and partly to moral causes; its proximity to the sea giving it all the advantages of easy navigation, while its political constitution insured it the benefits of free government. Again, the limited and exclusive character of the Spartan institutions is to be traced partly to their inferior means of maritime intercourse, and partly to the personal influence of their well known legislator. These are the first and obvious facts in the case of either people; many more may be added, and shewn to be the source of important national characteristics: but we can scarcely be too fastidious in our examination of them before they are admitted to the rank of predisposing causes. An old tactician will be very cautious in sanctioning military theories; and an experienced physician is slow in subscribing to those sweeping systems which dazzle the imagination of his younger brethren.

In point of style, the great defects of Dr. Miller are diffuseness and repetition. Instead of contenting himself with stating an idea in a few brief phrases, he brings it forwards in paragraph after paragraph; a habit sufficiently natural to a lecturer, but which ought to be carefully excluded from written composition. — The notes are appended not to the end of the volume but to each separate chapter, and contain a variety of references to the different authorities adopted by the author. Their variety, their comparative brevity, and the absence of theory, will render them, in the opinion of many readers, the best parts of the book.

Dr. Robertson, and the small number of writers who have exhibited skill in arrangement, make it a rule to give us facts first and reasoning afterward; being aware that the mind is best prepared by an address to the memory for the difficult and comparatively uninviting occupation of an appeal to the intellect. Dr. Miller, however, has failed to observe this caution, and sets out by dedicating four long lectures (comprizing above 200 pages) to an exposition of the plan of his work. Next comes the historical part, in the manner recapitulated in the beginning of this article; and the whole is finished without a summing up, or an attempt to establish general conclusions on the body of the preceding narrative. Now this is by no means the plan that we should have been inclined to pursue: we should either have laid down a few general positions, and supported them by appropriate historical illustrations; or have endeavoured to give the reader an interesting relation of a certain period of history, and have followed up this record of facts by the application of general views.

Dr. M. discovers much historical erudition as to facts and circumstances, but a very limited knowlege of political economy. 'War,' he observes, p. 103., 'however it may shock our feelings, is the great principle of social combination.' Would it not have been better to have taken an opposite view of the question, and to have said that nations have been hitherto so little instructed in their own interest as to suppose the necessity of a recurrence to war, but that there seemed reason for believing that the conviction of the mutual advantages of thriving trade and general prosperity would open the eyes of the civilized part of the world to a new system? We may be assured that, in any state of society, motives will not be wanting to induce individuals to cling to each other, and to feel the necessity of mutual support. Has not Providence created us with wants which call for the exertion of all our powers; and is it not more dutiful in us to suppose that such is their proper employment, than to imagine them to be given us for the annoyance of our fellow-creatures? The navigation of the ocean, the cultivation of uncleared lands, and the augmentation of produce in proportion to the increase of population, are all tasks which call for a wide field of exertion, and offer employment to the faculties of mankind for many successive ages.

With all the appearance of caution and deliberation, and with an evident disposition to impartiality, Dr. M. yet allows himself to be carried away by first impressions, and to give credit to reports of very doubtful authenticity. In proof of this allegation, we have only to point out to his readers a passage (vol. i. pp. 96, 97.) in which he lays too much stress on the effect of the character of individuals in giving a turn to political transactions. The Maid of Orleans was a very active personage in her day: but to say that she was the means of turning the tide of war against the English is not more correct than the assertion that, had Bonaparte succeeded at Waterloo, he would have dissolved the Coalition. England, in the one case, was as unfit to maintain a distant war in the heart of an enemy's country, as France, on the other, was incapable of withstanding the combined arms of Europe.

We have felt it our duty to express, without reserve, the animadversions which the perusal of this work has suggested to us; not with the slightest intention to depreciate a writer of such respectable intentions as Dr. Miller evidently possesses, but in the hope that our remarks might not be found wholly useless in the event of a continuation of his labours. The present volumes do not (preface, p. 2.) form above a third part of the whole course of lectures; and if in his subsequent compositions Dr. M. shall be induced to make any alteration in the disposition of his materials, or to limit those theoretical views which he has scattered with too unsparing a hand throughout the pages before us, we shall consider ourselves as amply indemnified for the labour of dissecting his first publication, and even for the ungracious task of exhibiting its defects to the public eye. We would by no means be understood, by the negative tone of this article, as discouraging all attempts at forming a theory of history; and we extract from the work of the well known Gentz (as quoted by Dr. M.) the following remark, to exemplify the success with which a political philosopher may establish an important distinction:

> 'Politics, as far as they depend upon personal characters and dispositions, can be considered only as an art, since these considerations can never be made the objects of general science; but the elementary and essential part of politics, which relates to the absolute and relative strength of nations, and is founded upon the knowledge of their geographical situations, their means of invasion and resistance, their natural and constant objects of industry, and their general and predominant interests, is of the class of science, because its principles are fixed and immutable.'

We cannot conclude without observing that Dr. Miller is extremely familiar with the leading events of antient and modern history, and adduces his illustrations with the greatest facility; indeed, our objections to his book affect less his statement of facts than his reasoning, which, besides being unfit to stand the rigid scrutiny of the critical investigator, is likely, we apprehend, to be regarded as too dry and abstract by the more superficial class of readers. In short, we must characterize him as a writer who has read much, and given great latitude to his fancy, but very little exercise to his judgment.

ART. V. *Medico-Chirurgical Transactions*, Vol. VII. Part I. 8vo. pp. 300. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

THE first paper in this volume, and which occupies nearly one-fourth of the whole, is a description of *the Mineral Waters of Spa* in Germany, by Dr. Edwin Godden Jones. The water was originally examined by Bergmann, and more lately by Dr. Ash: but the improved state of chemical knowlege, especially that part of it which respects the analysis of waters, seemed to offer a fair opportunity for the exercise of the present author's scientific skill. He begins by a description of the town and its vicinity, the nature and composition of the neighbouring hills, the disposition of their strata, and, in short, of all those circumstances which might be conceived likely to throw any light on the subject under examination. Not fewer than sixteen mineral springs have been discovered in and about the town of Spa, but only seven are now employed, and to these Dr. Jones confined his attention. The one which possesses the most active medicinal powers, which was probably first noticed, and is generally at present known through Europe under the denomination of Spa-water, is called the

Pouhon spring, and rises in the centre of the town. The quantity of water which it discharges is very great; and we are informed that 'besides what is drunk at the well every morning, the inhabitants are allowed to carry away as much of it as they please, which, as they use it for their common beverage, they are doing all the day: added to this consumption, I have often seen five or six hundred bottles filled with it for exportation, in one morning, without the well appearing much the emptier.' Its sensible properties are then described; and afterward we have a minute account of its chemical properties, as ascertained by re-agents: an examination which seems to be very complete, and to have been conducted with every minute attention to accuracy. We do not, however, judge it necessary to enter into this detail; since, though all the usual experiments appear to have been diligently employed, we do not observe that any new processes were instituted, or any additional light thrown on the method of analysis. It is worthy of remark that, after a long series of rainy weather, the whole amount of the solid contents of the water is increased: but that the iron, which is considered as the most active of the ingredients, is rather diminished in quantity. The general result is thus given: 'The water of the Pouhon fountain therefore appears to be a powerful and highly carbonated chalybeate, containing more iron and particularly more carbonic acid, than almost any with which we are acquainted, and from these two ingredients are its medicinal properties to be estimated, for the others are in quantities too small to be taken into the account.'

Of the next spring which was examined, called the Geronstere, the sensible qualities differ from those of the Pouhon, in emitting a 'peculiar disagreeable smell;' which has been generally supposed to depend on its containing sulphuretted hydrogen, and to this impregnation many specific virtues have been attributed: but such does not appear to be the case, because, after the most minute examination, no sulphat could be detected.—The water of the remaining springs contains much less solid matter than that of the two first, especially of the Pouhon, and some of them may even be regarded as unusually pure. One, which is called the second Tonnelet, holds in solution no more than between three and four grains in a gallon: but they all afford nearly the same quantity of carbonic acid, amounting in most of them to more than the bulk of the water; and, in all, the proportion of oxyd of iron, which is dissolved by the carbonic acid, is considerable. The quantity of carbonic acid and of iron is sufficient to render these waters very powerful agents in many morbid states of the system, and the author justly observes that 'there are several circumstances connected with these waters which greatly contribute to their efficacy; such are the pure mountain air, the amenity of the situation which tempts the invalid to active and agreeable exercise, and the manner of living generally observed by patients at Spa, which is on the whole highly conducive to the restoration of health. These advantages will always render this beautiful spot a favourite place of resort for invalids.'

Dr. Black, of Newry, published some years ago a statement of two cases of *Angina Pectoris*, and he now gives an account of two more. In the first, no previous circumstances in the history of the patient could be deemed likely to lead to the occurrence of the disease, except great mental uneasiness, the consequence of domestic calamity. The case presented the usual symptoms, terminating in fatal hydrothorax; and the following appearances were discovered on dissection:

> 'The cartilages, by which the ribs are connected with the sternum, had become completely osseous. The cavity of the chest contained a large quantity of fluid. The heart was loaded with fat, large, flabby, and soft. The valves were all sound. There were several osseous scales on the internal surface of the aorta, near its origin. The coronary arteries (which are still in my possession) were ossified through their whole extent.'

In the second case, the symptoms of the complaint also came on after the patient had experienced a considerable degree of agitation, and, like the former, ended in hydrothorax. The cartilages of the ribs were here also ossified, the cavity of the chest contained eight or nine pints of water, and the coronary arteries exhibited a highly diseased appearance.

> 'They were ossified in a remarkable manner. They are in my possession. One of them divides, immediately after its origin, into three principal branches, every one of which is osseous through its whole extent: saving that the bony structure is interrupted at intervals. The longest branch, which is five inches long, is not pervious to the smallest probe for more than half an inch; the other two branches not so far. The other coronary does not divide into branches, but its calibre is perfectly obliterated, and they are all as rigid and incompressible as any other bone of the same diameter. About three inches of the aorta being cut out, its internal surface exhibits a number of osseous scales, surrounding more especially the origin of the coronaries. There is one very remarkable lamina of bone, one-third of an inch long, nearly as broad, and as thick as a shilling.'

The paper concludes with some interesting pathological observations.

In the next memoir, Mr. Kinder Wood, of Oldham, relates some cases *of a very fatal Affection of the Pudendum of female Children.* This affection seems not to have been exactly described by any previous writer; it commences with fever; inflammation is soon observed to take place; and, unless very prompt means be employed for its removal, gangrene quickly ensues. No cause can be assigned for the complaint. One of the earliest symptoms is pain in passing the urine, and in a few hours all the constitutional affections supervene which accompany the fever of mortification. The disease seems to be totally distinct from the *erysipelas infantilis.* The external application of lead-water, with the internal use first of purgatives and afterward of bark and aromatics, is the plan of treatment recommended. The paper thus terminates:

> ' Upon looking over my notes, I find that, in nine years, I have seen twelve cases; of these, I have only seen the two above related so early as to be materially serviceable; the others being among the children of labourers, had little chance, either from the attention or punctuality of the parents, of getting over so very formidable a disease. One, a little girl of two years old, recovered, and was attacked again in the course of a fortnight, which second attack proved fatal. In a girl, five years of age, where the earlier appearances of the disease had been entirely overlooked, the mother, upon finding an extensive ulcer, brought the child to me, under the idea of its having received injury from fire, which had escaped attention. The case proved fatal.'

It is the object of the ensuing paper, by Mr. Stansfield of Leeds, to shew the beneficial effects of the seton in a case of *Fracture of the Os Humeri* which exhibited no disposition to unite, according to the plan recommended by Dr. Physic of America. — Next comes the *History of a Case of Wound in the Face, requiring the Operation of tying the common carotid Artery, which was performed with success,* by Mr. Collier. The situation of the patient was so extremely urgent, that it appeared to justify the bold measure which was adopted, and which proved completely efficacious.—A minute detail then succeeds, by Mr. Goodlad, of a case in some respects similar to the last, in which the existence of *a Tumour in the Face and Neck,* so large as to threaten the immediate suspension of the functions necessary for life, was removed by previously tying the carotid artery. The circumstances attending this case, which are amply stated, seemed to render it impossible to attempt the removal of the tumour without cutting off the source of hæmorrhage, which would almost inevitably have proved fatal during the operation. It was accomplished without any peculiar obstacle or untoward occurrence, and proved ultimately successful. Neither in this nor the preceding case did any material injury arise to the mental or corporeal functions, from the obliteration of the artery.

The next case, in which Mr. Collier *tyed the external Iliac*, in order to remove an *Aneurism of the Femoral Artery*, ended unfavourably; though the operation itself seems to have been performed without any peculiar difficulty. Shortly afterward, however, the patient grew irritable and restless, with excessive pain and a sense of coldness; the limb became gangrened; and on the fourth day he expired. No obvious cause appeared, sufficient to account for this event.

In the fifth volume of these Transactions, some observations by Dr. Somerville were inserted, *on the Diuretic Effects of the Pyrola umbellata*, and in the present volume we have some additional remarks on the medical properties of this plant by Professor Barton of Philadelphia. It is stated that a black colour of the urine is occasionally produced by using the pyrola, a fact which has been observed with respect to the *Uva ursi*; and in some other points a resemblance appears between the operation of these plants, as there is between their sensible qualities and botanical characters.

Dr. Travers, of Newark, relates a case in which *the Ossification of the Larynx obstructed Deglutition*, and caused the death of the patient. The state of the parts was ascertained by an examination after death, of which the following is the result:

> 'The cricoid and arytenoid cartilages were much increased in size, and completely converted into bone; by pressing upon the œsophagus an obstruction was offered to the passage of food, and a distinct circular line was seen upon the posterior part of the œsophagus, occasioned by the pressure of the cricoid cartilage, both above and below the obstructed part. The œsophagus was natural in appearance. The remaining cartilages concerned in forming the larynx and trachea appeared in a slight degree to partake of the same morbid change. The thyroid gland was not increased in size, but it was firmer than usual, and many small depositions of bone were distributed throughout its substance.'

Dr. Somerville then details (in Latin) some curious particulars concerning *the anatomical Structure of the Hottentot, and especially the singular Conformation of the female Genitals*, for which we shall refer to the original. Nothing appears in the habits or customs of the people which can account for this peculiarity. — Mr. Morel relates an interesting case *of a Gun-shot-Wound of the Shoulder-joint*, in which the shoulder having been severely injured, and amputation of the limb being the only remedy, a considerable part of the os humeri, including *the head* of the bone, was removed. The operation was easily performed, and the result justified the experiment. After an interval of six weeks, this report was made:

> 'The wound requires no further dressing, and the man is in excellent health. The distance between the cup of the scapula, and the extremity of the humerus, is not more than an inch and a half. On measuring the arm from the top of the acromion to the points of the elbow, the difference between it and the other arm is about one inch and a fourth. There is a little motion in the shoulder, but all the variety of motions of which the fore-arm and hand are capable are preserved, and he is daily acquiring more strength.
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> 'I have within the last month seen the man: he is completely recovered, and has the perfect use of his fore-arm and hand.'

In the Philosophical Transactions for 1811, Mr. Brodie gave an account of some experiments, from which he attempted to subvert the chemical theory of animal heat by shewing that, when the brain has been destroyed, heat ceases to be evolved, although respiration is artificially kept up, and the blood is made to undergo the usual change in passing through the lungs; the inference drawn from which experiments was, that the nervous power is essential to the production of animal heat. Mr. Earle now endeavours to corroborate the opinion of Mr. Brodie by some pathological observations, (*Cases and Observations illustrating the Influence of the nervous System,*) in which the paralysis or destruction of a nerve had the effect of permanently lowering the temperature of the muscles to which it was distributed. It seems also that these parts are less able to bear the vicissitudes of temperature, and that they are more liable to inflammation and consequent gangrene, from an excessive degree either of heat or of cold, than parts which possess their natural connection with the nervous system. We consider the point as one that cannot be decided, except by a more full deduction of facts, and by a greater number of experiments than have hitherto been performed: but, in the mean time, we feel the value of the remarks that have been made, and regard them as tending to the elucidation of one of the most mysterious functions of the animal economy.

Some sensible observations ensue by Mr. Brodie, *on the Treatment of varicose Veins of the Legs.* In certain diseases of the lower extremities, the enlarged state of the veins is an insurmountable obstacle to the recovery, and it has been proposed to divide or tye the large trunks in order to obliterate them. This plan has been successful in some instances, but in others serious consequences have ensued from the inflammation excited in the vessel, so as to present a formidable

obstacle

obstacle to the operation. Mr. B. has found material benefit, on some such occasions, without any corresponding disadvantage, by tyeing the varicose branches instead of the trunk itself; and he concludes with these observations:

> 'From the result of the foregoing and of many other cases, I am induced to conclude, that the operation which has been described, may be frequently employed with great advantage to the patient. At the same time I wish to be understood as recommending the adoption of it, not indiscriminately, but with a due attention to the circumstances of each individual case. The cases for which it is fitted, are, not those in which the veins of the leg generally are varicose, or in which the patient has little or no inconvenience from the complaint, but those in which there is considerable pain referred to a particular varix, or in which haemorrhage is liable to take place from the giving way of the dilated vessels, or in which they occasion an irritable and obstinate varicose ulcer.'

To this paper succeeds an account of *the last Illness and Death of Prof. Saussure*, related by Dr. Odier. The history is minute and rather diffuse, and it would be difficult to give a short abstract of it: but in general it may be remarked that the Professor laboured under two sets of symptoms, one which seemed connected with a disease of the nervous system, and the other with a morbid condition of the abdominal viscera; and, by an examination after death, both the brain and the intestines were found to be considerably deranged in their structure.—As an appendix to this paper, Dr. Marcet gives an account of some circumstances connected with the complaints of the late Dr. Ferguson; which are interesting as they afford an example of an individual who, after a severe attack of hemiplegia, at the age of 50, recovered his health, chiefly by a very strict attention to regimen, and lived in the full enjoyment of his faculties for forty-three years.

We have next a paper from Mr. Kinder Wood, containing an account of *a very singular Case of Chorea Sancti Viti*, not very unlike one in the last volume of these Transactions; in which a woman, of a sane mind and of adult age, experienced an irresistible propensity to dance about the house in the most extraordinary manner. Except the singularity of the fact, we observe no circumstance, as far as the external evidence is concerned, which should cause us to doubt the correctness of the narration.—*Particulars concerning the Structure of a monstrous Fœtus*, by Prof. Maunoir of Geneva. The following paragraph contains a perspicuous description of this singular production:

> '*In* order to obtain a correct idea of the form of this singular *being*, we must imagine two female fœtuses, each divided trans-

versely into two portions; the one containing the greater part of the trunk, the head, and pectoral extremities, and the other consisting of the pelvis and the pelvis extremities. We must then suppose the operation of some blind power tending to repair this injury, and to reunite all the parts that had been separated; but which, instead of bringing each portion in contact with the corresponding part from which it had been divided, had united the trunk of the one with the trunk of the other, and the pelvis of the one with the pelvis of the other; so as to form, on the one hand, an individual composed of a very irregular kind of trunk, with two heads and four pectoral extremities: and on the other, a being consisting of two pelves, and four pelvic extremities. Lastly, we must conceive this latter being united to the former by being placed transversely upon it on its back, just as a sack of corn is laid on the back of a mule.'

The state of the individual parts of the internal structure is minutely described, and illustrated by an engraving.—We have then another communication by Mr. Wood, containing the *History of a Cure of the Cæsarean Operation;* which, like all other similar cases in this country, proved fatal.—To this succeed some observations by Mr. Wardrop, *on the Laceration of the Fibres of the Muscles, particularly of the external Gastrocnemius;* and the volume concludes with some remarkable facts respecting the effect of *the internal Use of the Nitrate of Silver in blackening the Colour of the Skin,* by Dr. Albers of Bremen, with some additional facts by Dr. Roget. From this joint communication, the point seems to be clearly established that, occasionally, after the long continued employment of this substance in small doses, the skin acquires at first a bluish and at length almost a black hue. The blood does not appear to be affected, and there is reason to believe that the membrane of Malpighi is the part in which the alteration of colour is produced.

Art. VI. *The Study and Practice of the Law considered,* in their various Relations to Society. In a Series of Letters. By John Raithby, of Lincoln's Inn, Esq., Barrister at Law. Second Edition. 8vo. pp. 461. 12s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

We were stopped in entering on the perusal of this book by two rather squeamish advertisements, under the name of prefaces, which lay in our way at the threshold. On advancing, however, we found ourselves entertained with a very goodly appearance of sound sense, habited in very becoming and in some respects even eloquent diction. We were accordingly led to survey the whole performance with more attention than we were at first disposed to think it deserved;

and we mean to present our readers with a somewhat larger sampe of it than we once surmised could contribute either to their amusement or their profit.

The members of none of the professions have maintained a more respectable character than the barristers of this country; and, whatever imputations may lie against some of the inferior member of a court of law, the gentlemen of the bar and the higher practitioners have never been charged with any of the arts of chicanery, or petty-fogging. This greater purity of character is partly owing, no doubt, to their farther removal from temptation, in consequence of their less frequent communication in any direct manner with their clients, and their exemption from all those petty details of circumstances which it is so much the interest of those who live by them to involve and extend. It is also partly owing to the long unproductive attendance which most young advocates, for good and obvious reasons, must undergo before they advance into practice; — a delay which, by implying possession of the means of a becoming subsistence during this barren novitiate, implies such a state of worldly circumstances, and such connections in society, as are friendly to sentiments of honour and just principles of conduct. We think, however, that it is chiefly to be ascribed to the liberal and comprehensive course of education which success at the bar, and the prospects united with it, demand. A knowlege of the mere technical parts of the science is doubtless indispensable; or, rather, the more intimate is the barrister's acquaintance with them, so much the more is his advantage: but there is a far higher knowlege with which his mind must be intimately imbued;—which views all form, whether consisting in technical phraseology, in arrangements for the conduct of process, in structure of deeds, or in any other part of the profession, as the creature and handmaid of science, and as arising out of, and altogether auxiliary to, her loftier purposes; — which regards law as a great moral institute, intended to perfect the principles of our fellow-subjects through the medium of their practical intercourse with one another, not as a mere instrument of attack or defence, conferring reputation and emoluments in proportion to the dexterity with which it is wielded;—which, by rendering every other subject of inquiry tributary to itself, imparts to the mind a freedom and vigour unknown to narrower studies; — and which, by the unalterable connection between comprehensiveness of view and the love of virtue, exalts the conduct and purifies the heart of its possessor. This higher knowlege is the result of the liberal course of education to which we have alluded. Classical learning, by which taste and sentiment are at once cherished, corrected, and dignified, and all the social principles of our nature awakened and enforced by a charm of expression which no future accident can efface from the recollection, forms its ground-work; and history and philosophy, chiefly in their reference to man, whether considered in his individual or in his civil character, constitute the superstructure.

Let it not be imagined that, though the terms which we have employed are ordinary, they do not imply a comprehensive range of application; or that we mean a mere passive attendance on the prelections of the schools, or a not less passive course of reading in the closet. We mean that vital application to classical, historical, and philosphical attainments, which prepared such minds for the subsequent study and immaculate practice of the law, and for the high political functions to which they were afterward called, as the D'Aguesseaus and the Cochins [*] of France, and the Hardwickes and Mansfields of England. [†]

To fortify these noble and comprehensive sentiments of the nature and duties of his profession, in the breast of the future lawyer, is to perform an useful service to the community. He, therefore, cannot be said to be unworthily employed, who presents to the minds of those by whom the civil and political rights, and through these the substantial prosperity and happiness of their fellow-citizens, are to be vindicated, new mo-

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[*] A French critic, speaking of Cochin, says: "*Veut on savoir comment il parvint à se rendre maitre de ses talens, et à les perfectionner? Il est aisé de sentir qu' à l'exemple des Grands Hommes qui se sont distingués chacun dans leur genre, ce fut par une étude constante et réfléchie des Anciens. S'appliquer de bonne heure à la lecture des Historiens et des Philosophes, pour apprendre des premiers l'origine et l'usage des loix; des seconds, la manière de penser et de raisonner; tels furent les moyens qu'il jugea propres à le mettre en état de fournir une carrière ou l'esprit ne sauroit se soutenir lui seul.*" Sebattier, Trois Siècles Littéraires—voce Cochin.

[†] See some remarks of Blackstone (Discourse on Study of the Law) on the absurdity of sending young men to attorneys' offices as a proper ground-work of their legal studies, and on the necessity of a liberal course of classical and philosophical education.

"Students of the law," says Lord Bolingbroke, "must pry into the secret recesses of the human heart, and become well acquainted with the whole moral world, that they may discover the abstract reason of all laws; and they must trace the laws of particular states, especially of their own, from the first rough sketches to the more perfect draughts; from the first causes or occasions that produced them, through all the effects, good and bad, that they produced."—*Letters on Study of History*, tives to elevated and honourable conduct, or who developes, in their full vigour and beauty, motives imperfectly perceived before; who discloses the moral as well as natural connection subsisting between a previous course of liberal and philosophic study, and the subsequent details of professional research; and, finally, who delineates the path by which that previous study and subsequent research are each to be successfully pursued. On this subject, accordingly, several performances have been submitted to the public; some of them comprehending the different topics to which we have alluded, and others being more limited. Of the former, the best with which we are acquainted is a set of essays originally printed in the periodical paper called *The World*, and since re-published separately under the title of "The Barrister;" and of the latter, Mr. Serjeant Wynne's Eunomus, in which a liberal and enlarged method of legal study is elegantly described and inculcated. *

In the work before us, Mr. Raithby treats the subject on a comprehensive scale. He has set himself to remove some preliminary objections which, in certain circumstances, may be alleged against the study of the law altogether; has considered the different moral virtues, the dispositions, and the manners, more peculiarly demanding the young lawyer's attention; has treated the general introductory course of study, literature, philosophy, and history, necessary for the enlargement of his mind, and its preparation for entering more liberally on the investigation of his proper science; and has discussed the topic of eloquence, and detailed some particulars of a plan of strictly professional study. This, indeed, is not the order in which the author has proceeded; for, to say the truth, he has no where paid a scrupulous attention to the arrangement of his subject: but, though we do not quarrel with the comprehensive view which he has taken of it, we certainly do disapprove the proportion which he has given to the parts. The only preliminary objections, for example, of which he has taken notice, are such as are peculiar to young spendthrifts; who, having squandered their patrimony in fashionable dissipation, are inclined by their habits to resist the admonitions by which their friends as well as their necessities would urge them to enter on a course of professional discipline. Surely, however, many objections besides those that are peculiar to this class of persons deserved to be examined, and to be removed or admitted as they were found trivial or weighty. This branch of the subject, therefore, ought either not to have been touched or to have been more comprehensively considered. On the other hand, the discussions on eloquence are greatly too much detailed, since the peculiar properties of what is called the eloquence of the bar might have been discussed within the limits of the shortest of the letters employed on it; and, finally, the instructions given on that which must be regarded as the great object of all the previous preparation, — a course of strictly professional study,—are very meagre, and almost wholly nugatory. Yet, as far as Mr. Raithby has gone, he has on the whole done well. If on some topics he is much too diffuse, and on others too sparing, he is neither unmeaning nor digressive; if he is never profound or original, he is always judicious and sometimes instructive. The moral sentiments, too, which he inculcates, are always pure, and often elevating; and his style, if redundant and therefore deficient in strength, is occasionally eloquent, and never discreditable to the literary character of the society of which he is a member.

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* If the student deems it worth while, he may farther look into "Bridgeman's Reflections on the Study of the Law;" "Deinology, or the Union of Reason and Elegance, being Instructions to a young Barrister;" "Simpson's Reflections on the natural and acquired Endowments requisite for the Study of the Law;" and "Strictures on the Education proper for the Bar;"—all very meagre performances. He will find something better, though in a degree antiquated, in Sir John Doddridge's "Lawyer's Light, or a true Direction for the Study of the Law, Choice of Books," &c.; and in Chief Justice Reeves "On the Study of the Law," published in vol. i. of the *Collectanea Juridica*. Blackstone's Discourse on the Study of the Law is little else than merely a recommendation of it to the different classes of society.

We shall now extract a few passages on the different topics of the comprehensive outline which is embraced by this performance; thus exemplifying the remarks which we have made, and, we hope, at the same time edifying our readers.

Some of the author's attention, we have observed, is directed to the removal of certain objections which young men of ruined fortunes and dissipated habits, though perhaps of good parts, are apt to oppose to their entrance on a course of professional study. To his young friend who, in the depression of mind arising from such a predicament, had talked of burying himself in the retirement of the country, he thus judiciously and honestly writes:

'I rejoice to find that you begin to enter into my design; that your grief moderates, and that you have put off your journey into the country; though you say, with respect to this last, you have complied rather out of affection for me, and some other of your friends, than a full conviction of the justness of my reasoning upon the subject of retirement. I should have been better pleased had you relinquished your intention from a conviction of its impropriety. You say that liberty is the very essence of life; and you ask whether that can be a principle of liberty which restrains a man, who is disgusted with society, from leaving it? My dear friend, there are numberless phrases of speech which have got abroad in the world, and which men learn by rote, and then contract an inveterate habit of continually chattering without thinking of their import, or, indeed, caring any thing about it. Thus it is with this cant of disgust with the world, which obtains chiefly with the ignorant and self-loving part of mankind, who either do not know their duty, or are too idle or profligate to perform it. You are as capable of making accurate observations as any man I know. Remark then what sort of persons they usually are who thus quarrel with the world, and are in such haste to retire from it: you will in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred find them to be people of intolerably fractious dispositions, continually disordered by trifles, and upon uneasy terms with those to whom nature has the most closely united them. Is it then to be expected that they, who cannot be happy with their own flesh and blood, should be easy with a world that can have no motive to coalesce, but where pleasure is the result of the coalition, and that is at once willing and able to thwart the discontented spirit? And he, who is looking for another sort of world than this in the present state of things, is seeking for that which he will never find.

'It is true, there are a few whom a long course of unmerited misfortunes has at length wearied out, who are glad to find in retirement a resting-place, and from whom a departing sigh of reproach may be expected and pardoned; but these form exceptions, and not examples. He who has youth and strength has no title to this indulgence; his case is a very different one: he is displeased with the world, because it does not exactly suit with his ill formed judgment, or because he is prevented from joining in all its extravagances, and he would claim with an arrogance peculiar to inexperience, the liberty of flying from his duty in it altogether.

'See then the freedom (if it may be thus named) which you are so anxious to enjoy. What is it? It is such a freedom as belongs only to the greatest slaves, or the most unfortunate among mankind. Are you emulous of such a condition? You talk of that as a right when you have scarcely reached twenty, which is hardly to be allowed to a man who has felt the disappointments of half a century.'

He thus animates the student to encounter and conquer the difficulties of legal study:

'When I look back upon the history of my own country, or search the records of those which are no more, I rejoice that the most elegant ornaments of the one, and the noblest monuments of the other, are to be found in the fame of those men who have studied the laws, and directed the jurisprudence of their respective nations; and while I contemplate these glowing pictures of departed glory, I feel my mind elevated with the loftiest emotions.

Let me communicate, for a moment, the enthusiasm to yours: look up to these exalted characters, and resolve at least to imitate, if you cannot equal them; but despair not even of that. Do you think they would ever have risen to their own elevation, if they had not beheld the eminence of some master, whom they then venerated at an awful distance, as you now venerate them? Or if, beholding that eminence, they had been dismayed at it?

'By such examples, the study of the law comes recommended to us; and he who would rise in it must have such examples before his eyes; he ought never to lose sight of them. The eloquence, the wisdom, the justice, and the virtue which distinguished them, must be his; he must labour as they have laboured, he must study as they have studied, if he expect to reap the same glorious rewards which have crowned their course. But be not impatient of your progress if you find it at first difficult and tardy; this will be but a natural consequence: you may, however, find it less so than you now imagine; should this prove the case, do not babble to every one you meet, the great plans which you have formed, or the atchievement you have executed; this will expose you to ridicule or envy, and will be unworthy of you.

'I know not a more accurate criterion of a noble mind than that silent confidence in its own powers, which incites to great endeavours, and leaves the event to time. The labours of such a mind will be secret but ardent; and its success will be known to the world only by the superiority of the actions it incites. Such a state as this is not attained without perseverance; but, thank Heaven! it is still attainable by perseverance; and it must be attained, or you will never rise to extraordinary flights of talent or of virtue.

'Do you see what you have to do? I am afraid I have been wrong; I have been delighting your imagination with a transient glance of beauty and excellence, from which I must a while withdraw you to the less pleasing contemplation of the means by which they are to be attained; for great and various as the powers of the human intellect are, still they are in a state of progression, of tedious and humiliating progression; we are not yet arrived at the state in which we are to behold them flourishing in eternal bloom.'

In the letters, accordingly, which immediately follow, Mr. R. enters on the detail of some of the difficulties to be overcome, and the means of overcoming them. Among these, timidity, or a degrading estimate of our own powers, is not only formidable in itself but aggravates every other:

'I am now endeavouring,' says the author, 'to animate you to a desire of excellence; and for this purpose I have turned your attention towards those who have been its fairest patterns. It is clear, that if you wish to be like them, you must pursue the path which they have trodden: but you think this looks like arrogance; you think the character of modesty amiable, and that to assume the hope, however remote, of an equality with those renowned men is inconsistent with modesty. This idea appears to me to be a false a false one; let us for a moment contemplate the true nature of modesty.

'Modesty is the inseparable companion of an enlightened mind; but there is a little, low, debasing fear, which assumes the appearance of modesty, and which is therefore one of the most dangerous enemies a man of genius has to combat. Consider the marks that distinguish each of these from the other. Modesty is a sentiment, fear is a quality of the mind; modesty has its birth from a comparison of our own talents and actions with those of other men; fear is that imbecillity that dares not enter into the comparison; modesty is supported by hope, and looks, though with a trembling eye, towards the excellence at which she points; fear never lifts her eye from the ground; modesty acquires fortitude as the mind in which it resides approaches the regions of truth; fear depresses the mind, and continually obstructs its progress in such approaches; modesty is generous; she is ever ready to pay her tribute to the works of genius; fear is selfish, and envious of the success of merit. In short, the one is the offspring of strength, the other the wretched child of weakness; the one leads on, though by slow degrees, to great designs and noble actions; the other drags its miserable victim from every enlivening prospect, enervates all his faculties, and at length chains him down to obscurity for ever.

'Your present feelings appear to me to partake in a degree of this slavish fear; I will endeavour to shew you the source of the evil. Independently of the difference which there is between the pursuits of men of business and pleasure, and those of men of learning, there is also a very unhappy prejudice in the great majority of mankind against any attempt at excellence beyond that which serves the purpose of the moment; and this prejudice has engrafted itself from generation to generation upon the minds of men, until they seem to be agreed to consider those personages who have attained an established fame as set apart from the general condition of humanity: to imitate them is therefore looked upon as an attempt little less than impious, and at all events as fruitless. This you will say is a most egregious folly: it is so; but it is nevertheless a very prevalent one, and it is easily imbibed; for there are not many affections of the mind which have a greater tendency to produce false conceptions of things than admiration; and how can it be wonderful that we are ready to exclaim, "This object is beyond my imitation," when our admiration is seconded by indolence; when we have in fact lost every inclination to imitate it.

'You see, then, that you have formed a false conception of your duty, and of your powers, or at least that you are subject to all the fear that can arise from such a false conception: this has happened either by contracting a foolish habit of talking as the people around you talk without troubling yourself to think, or else by a blind subserviency to what is usually called the general opinion. Now here you may again easily perceive the clear distinctive marks between modesty and fear; modesty will inquire into these general opinions, but with caution; and will either wholly or in part adopt or reject them; fear will bend before them with an undistinguishing servility, whether they be false or true. Probably you do not think yourself deficient in courage; but the fact is, you would esteem it an inexcusable degree of boldness to look upon some men of the past ages, and of your own time, in the light of companions and friends; but this you call modesty; to their excellences you have persuaded yourself that you never shall be able to attain, and their works, therefore, fail to produce one spark of emulation in your breast. Tell me, my dear friend, do you mean to sink to the common level? But why do I ask you? You must conquer this infirmity; you must think for yourself.

'The independence of vulgar prejudices, at which I would have you aim, seems necessary to the formation of a finished character in every profession and situation in life: nay, I have little hesitation to affirm that there never was in this world a finished character without it; and if it is of greater importance in one profession than another, that profession is the law, because it requires those exertions, and involves in its practice those various displays of energy and of judgment, that bring the professor more into the public view than any other. But how can a man expect to attain to excellence in these important qualities, if he has not that holy confidence which arises from this desirable independence? Surely it is impossible! The question is, How is it to be gained? Perhaps it would be useless if not impossible to lay down any certain rule: if there be any one in particular to be marked out, it may be that of continually comparing the opinions that are daily uttered, first of all with what we have discerned of the character of those who utter them; secondly, with the opinions and practice of those men who have left a clear and established reputation behind them; and thirdly, with our own discoveries; because this habit of comparing what we hear with what we know, and with what the great and learned have uniformly taught, will go very far towards a discovery of the intrinsic value of any opinion; and when we have learned to estimate that, we shall soon gain the courage to approve or disapprove it.

'If we were usually thus to try the opinions we hear, there would not be so many false and foolish opinions in the world as there are; many of those prejudices, that are now abroad, and which have been handed traditionally down from father to son, would long since have fallen to the ground; and among them, this silent, inveterate, destructive prejudice that has infected in some degree even your understanding. I feel at this moment great difficulty in expressing myself; the truth is, I have a sincere and awful reverence for those great characters which have been scattered about in various ages and nations of the world, and I wish to preserve a similar sentiment in you; yet at the same time, I feel an anxiety to fill up that gulph which keeps you at such a distance from them: to lead you up to them, and to shew you that you may lawfully emulate their exalted sphere; that they are men and not gods.

'Let their works and their lives form, for a certain period, almost the whole of your daily study; this will in time, familiarise you somewhat to their presence, and you will at length be able to breathe while you are with them; in process of time you will begin to think and reason a little, and by and by something like an opinion upon the various subjects of which they treat will dawn in your bosom; this by degrees will produce a spirit of inquiry, which has hitherto not dared to raise its head: you will be bold enough sometimes to ask whether even these revered characters may not have been mistaken. Ha! do you start? Is this possible? Thus, under the auspices of my favourite modesty, have I led you step by step to some intimacy with these renowned personages—Very well—you tremble less than you did—you begin to be composed—you advance towards them with a manly yet modest boldness. And now what do I see? I look into your study, and there I find Demosthenes, Plato, Cicero, Hortensius, Lord Bacon, Lord Mansfield, Sir William Jones, and a few more of those exalted beings, who have delighted and amazed the universe, seated at your fireside! Can it be? Are you able to think, to move, to speak? Oh, yes; I hear you are bold enough to reason too. What! do you doubt whether Cicero's conclusion be right? Can you venture to imagine that my Lord Bacon is wrong? Amazing! Nay, do you form a sentiment or an hypothesis which you conceive to be almost as just as his?

'In plain and sober words, you must learn to judge for yourself; you must no longer remain the slave of prejudice. Do you think that such characters as these would endure that you should be a slave to it? No! they never were slaves themselves, and therefore their greatness was a natural consequence of their character. They thought, they spoke, they wrote, and they acted from themselves, and hence their estimation with mankind: this they arrived at by the very conduct I am pointing out to you: they revered the characters of their masters, but they dared to confide in their own; they were the subjects of modesty, and not the victims of fear.'

On the labour which is commonly, though erroneously, regarded as peculiar to the study of the law, our readers will find some excellent remarks in letter the seventh: but we rather present them with some observations taken from a different part of the work, on those stimulating rewards of which all occasionally, and some always, await the diligent, the virtuous, and the able student:

'I shall in this letter make it my business to state to you what may possibly be obtained in the course of years, by a fair exercise of your talents at the bar, reserving to some future opportunity the reflections that may be made upon the nice and delicate situations in which you may be placed by possessing a high reputation in the courts.

'The study of the law presents a fairer field for the exercise of those qualifications that adorn and dignify human life than any other profession. When men begin to feel their interest concerned in the decision of a court of justice, they necessarily perceive their want of an advocate; few in the present state of our legal polity are hardy enough to think of pleading their own cause; they therefore look out for some person who is either known as a man of talents in his own circle, or who has given proofs of his abilities to the public. Riches, birth, appearance, weigh lightly in the scale against imbecillity and dulness, when our fortune or our reputation is at stake: nay, what are the affections of consanguinity itself when these valued possessions come into competition with them?'—'Surely, in a life like the present, that man must account his situation a happy one, where merit and its reward go hand in hand.

'The character which attends a barrister, thus successful, forms also another pleasing and valuable part of his reward. Held not only in esteem but in reverence; he goes through life with that peculiar kind of pleasure which attends the man, who is conscious of his capacity to state the claims of the injured and procure them redress; he mixes with society upon more than equal terms, and has yet the happiness, from the nature of his superiority, of having little to fear from the envy it may occasion. Mankind have in general good sense enough to perceive that no one can attain to a deserved eminence in the law without possessing those talents and that learning which ought to command admiration; and when to this is added a systematic acquaintance with an important and various body of laws, every thing is willingly accorded that so great a merit can demand. All this satisfaction and honour may attend the early progress of a barrister who deserves them; but, as he proceeds in his career, a more extended prospect opens before him; a stuff gown is at length exchanged for a silk one; a barrister's wig for a serjeant's coif. Now he begins to perceive with redoubled pleasure that he has not been labouring in vain; all his powers are brought into action, and he finds, in a full employment of his acquirements, his most valuable reward.

'The noblest employments in the state lie open from this point; and they may, by such a character, possibly be acquired with honour. There is a strong connection in a country like this between politics and the law; and a man who, by a successful practice of many years as an advocate, has acquired the distinctions I have mentioned, will in all probability find it more difficult to decline than to cultivate connections of a political nature. Such men are continually wanted in the public departments, because they are usually the most capable of rendering a service to their country; in particular, the House of Commons will present to him a new and a grand scene for the expansion of that mind, which he has so long been labouring to rear to maturity: here it is, as the representative of a powerful nation, that he will be gratified with those opportunities for the exertion of his eloquence and his wisdom, which no other assembly in the world can afford.

'If then a man has a spirit emulous of superiority, he will, as a lawyer, have a fair chance for its honourable gratification: from the bar the ascent to the bench seems natural; and such an ascent seems natural only to the active and learned barrister; for I am induced to hope that the distribution of legal honours is more consonant with the abstract principles of justice, than the grants of high distinctions in the world usually are. And whence can a higher or a nobler satisfaction flow? To be the distributor of justice in a country like this, is to fill a station amongst the most exalted in human conception! When I see a judge upon the bench, fulfilling the duties of his office, I see a man clothed with integrity, and crowned with honour: if any object in this life may be allowed to excite envy in a well disciplined mind, this man is the object.

'Another very strong incentive to industry is the hope of riches; these the successful lawyer cannot but acquire; and he may acquire them without impairing his reputation; indeed, it is impossible but his pecuniary acquisitions must keep pace with his reputation. Here again how many scientific men does he leave behind him! Of the philosopher and the poet I will not speak; for it has, I believe, most usually been found with respect to them, that their reputation has sunk in exactly the same proportion as their coffers have risen. In the exercise of arms, the fame and the riches of the warrior seem to retain the native quality of his profession; they are at eternal strife: and what sort of a correspondence subsists between the talents and the fortune of a preacher may be better demonstrated by the present undeservedly ignominious situation of hundreds of the sacred order, than by my pen: but I willingly quit a comparison that has little relation to my present subject, and which no man of genius or humanity can contemplate without pain.

'What a noble recompence of labour have I presented to your view! Fame, fortune, honour! all combine to grace and dignify your life! Will you refuse these noble guests? or will you chuse obscurity, poverty, and contempt in their stead? Be no longer indolent; you have great things to perform, but you have greater things to obtain. It were inconsistent with nature to love labour for its own sake, but it were a greater violation of its dictates to fear labour when such are its rewards.

'Independently of all this, the particular desire of knowledge which some minds feel, is in no trifling degree satisfied by the acquisitions that are to be made in the progress of the legal study.—The laws by which nations are bound one towards another in their external commerce, and the regulations by which the internal polity of our own country is framed, open to the inquiring mind an expanded and animating scene. In this research new discoveries of reason and truth are continually made: here it is that we perceive, with a peculiar pleasure, those nice delineations of justice which are hidden from the common observer: here it is that we mark the various divisions of power, whereby the property of every man is at once ascertained and protected: here it is that we learn to distinguish the various duties of life, with a precision which enables us to instruct others as well as ourselves in the fulfilment of them: in short, this study is in every part of it, in a greater or a less degree, congenial with the best feelings of our nature, and must, consequently, bear with it its own reward through every stage and department of life.'

The same good sense, expressed in the same full and distinct manner, pervades the author's observations on the virtues and dispositions more peculiarly becoming the character of the lawyer. We pass over his remarks on the scrupulous integrity and high sense of honour, which are alike indispensable to the respectability of the profession itself and to the peace and welfare of society, over whose interests it possesses so large an influence: but we may take notice that, on the question relating to the rule to be observed by the advocate in his acceptance or rejection of briefs, the author has neither attained his usual perspicuity of thought, nor, consequently, preserved his usual distinctness of expression. His reasoning is disjointed and confused; while the form in which he has conveyed it is pedantically professional, and at variance with the popular and more classical complexion of the rest of the volume. We agree with him, however, on the principle which he appears to aim at establishing. Nothing can be more absurd than the opinion that, because, of two litigants pursuing opposite results, one must be in the wrong, the legal profession is therefore inconsistent with a strict integrity; since in most causes it is doubtful, till after debate or proof, on which side the right lies. Unquestionably, when, by a client's own shewing, injustice is obviously his purpose, either by instituting a groundless claim or opposing one that is just, it peculiarly concerns the character of the bar to discountenance and suppress at its outset every such nefarious attempt. No rule, indeed, can be given which will serve as an invariable guide; since that which appears to one mind clearly groundless, or unjust, may sometimes to another seem doubtful. Where, however, the injustice is palpable, conscientious understandings can scarcely differ; and every advocate must be his own adviser on the perusal of the story told in his brief. We have said that the wrongful purpose must be *obvious*; for it were evidently absurd to erect every barrister into a judge before trial, from the uncertainty, both in law and in fact, which necessarily attends most questions till some time after they have been submitted to a court of law. The very structure of a court, too, proceeds on the idea that the different members, of which it is constituted, have their appropriate functions in the judicial procedure; and among these, to use the words of Cicero, which at the same time happily express the rule to which we have been pointing, "*judicis est semper in causis verum sequi, patroni verisimile defendere.*"

While we thus censure Mr. Raithby's manner of treating this part of his subject, we refer with pleasure to his remarks on the other qualities which he conceives to be of primary importance to a lawyer. In particular, his recommendation of the culture of urbanity is forcible and eloquent. The qualification of modesty, too, which is vulgarly regarded as a fatal obstacle to forensic eminence, is treated in an equally spirited and judicious manner. Mr. R. had before considered it as an endowment necessary to success in private study; and he now contemplates it as not less essential to eminence in public speaking. The passage is too long to be quoted, and will not bear abridgement. Opposed to this graceful and wise disposition, is vanity; and, as this is the sin which most easily besets young minds, particularly (as it is alleged) the minds of young barristers, we make no apology for introducing the following observations regarding it:

> 'This is a propensity of the mind which betrays those who are under its influence into the most silly, not to say the most degrading actions; philosophy is certainly the best, if it be not the only cure for it. Take a view for a moment of the difference between their principles: vanity arises from a blind, unqualified partiality in a man towards himself; it is therefore a conceit that all his thoughts, and that every thing he does, partake of some peculiar superiority over the thoughts and actions of other men; philosophy, on the contrary, leads a man to enlarged views of truth; she produces a disposition to compare himself and his acquisitions with the elevated objects which she displays: the natural result of this comparison will be, a sense of his own deficiency: under the influence of the former he becomes conceited and arrogant; by the lessons of the latter, diffident and humble; in short, the principles of good and evil are not more averse from each other than are those of philosophy and vanity.
>
> 'If this representation be a fair one, and if what has lately been observed be correct, the advocate cannot have a greater enemy to his reputation than vanity. If the situation of the barrister peculiarly demand from him a modest and dignified reserve in his deportment, vanity must necessarily be inimical to his success, for she will be continually enticing him into frivolity and affectation. If integrity and urbanity be requisite to the excellence of the advocate, surely vanity should be avoided or opposed as adverse to both; for though I do not mean to say that the vain man cannot be an honest man, yet he who is subject to vanity will be sometimes inclined to sacrifice that nice sense of honour which has been mentioned, to his ostentation. Of his manners we may speak in terms less reserved; it may be taken as a maxim, that the man of vanity can never be the well-bred man.

'If we consult the common experience of life, we shall find that men conceive not only the deepest disgust, but contempt also, of the character of the vain man; and if this be the case in the trifling, comparatively trifling concerns of the day, how much more forcibly must it be so, upon those occasions when we are waiting for the displays of a profound judgment: these sensations of disgust and contempt are capable of working a great mischief against their object; and they are peculiarly dangerous to those who depend for their prosperity upon the confidence that others may be induced to repose in them; they naturally destroy all inclination to confidence. This is the situation of the advocate; he will do nothing if he possess not the confidence of men; disgust and contempt, it has been seen, destroy this confidence, and vanity may produce disgust and contempt.

'Subdue, then, the early suggestions of vanity; she is not only a powerful and a subtle, but an active enemy, and when she has once completed her conquest over you, displays, in a thousand modes, her triumphs to the world; she makes every part of you subservient to her purpose; she tortures your frame into unmeaning attitudes, teaches your eye, by turns, the stare of impudence and the gaze of inanity, and influences your voice to numberless ridiculous and unnatural variations; by her artifices your mind is perverted and your judgment weakened; they become subject to false and narrow conceits, that would contract all that is noble in science and elevated in nature, to their own debased sphere.'

The remarks on intemperance, envy, and certain other propensities peculiarly incompatible with the intellectual and liberal character of this profession, are equally judicious, and merit the attention of the unexperienced and ingenuous student.

We must forbear from making any quotation on the general preparatory course of literary study recommended by the author; as also on the mode of conducting a more strictly professional discipline. Indeed, this latter particular, though the point to which all previous preparation should tend, is, as we have already had occasion to observe, so meagrely treated that we find scarcely any thing worth extracting relative to it. As connected, however, with both of the departments of study to which we have just alluded, we give the subsequent judicious remarks on a species of dissipation into which the student is peculiarly liable to fall: we mean, an over-indulgence in general literature:

'A propensity to general study arises, usually, not so much from a more than ordinary love of science, as from a passion for universal applause; we will therefore consider it in this light, and also as particularly injurious to him whose views are bent towards excellence in one certain science alone.

'Could we by any degree of exertion that is within the power of man, attain to universal excellence, we might reasonably be allowed to look for universal fame, and to apply to universal study: but if it be true, that the utmost we are able to perform will not carry us to such extended acquisitions, this propensity must stand condemned in the judgment of every sensible person as the offspring of a heated and foolish imagination.

'I would wish you, therefore, to have a most careful guard against being diverted to light and multifarious studies, whether they come recommended to you under the title of politics, philosophy, the *belles lettres*, or under whatever other guise they may assume; take just so much of these things as will serve your purpose as a man of the world, and as a professional character; but remember to keep them in subordination to the main ends you have in view. It may be said of all such pursuits, by a man of business, as the proverb says of fire; "they may make very good servants, but they will certainly prove bad masters."

'It is astonishing how great a quantity of time is mis-spent by young men in amusing studies, either from the mere influence of a dissipated and an indolent spirit, or from mistaken notions of the true end and design of literature: amongst such notions, this of gaining what is commonly but falsely termed general knowlege is one of the most dangerous, for it not only beguiles the fancy and seduces the attention from studies of real importance, but it comes to us with all the recommendations of a fancied duty; and we follow it till it is too late, perhaps, to retrieve the consequences of our error.

'Every man who aims at excellence, and possesses a capacity for the attainment of it, will confine his hopes and his labours to one particular object; he knows that manifold excellence is not to be obtained by his utmost exertions; the common experience of life holds up to his contemplation numerous examples of the consequences of a diversified ambition; these serve at once to excite his compassion and arouse his vigilance. One cannot mix in life without daily meeting with men of genius and learning who are destitute equally of reputation and of wealth; of whom it may truly be said they want "a local habitation and a name:" an enquiry into the cause of this infelicity, so peculiar to talent and literature, is seldom made; and, indeed, if it be made but from idle curiosity, it is better let alone: but if the cause of this unhappiness be ever sought, it usually turns out to be that desultory, uncertain, and varied pursuit after universal science against which I am at this moment attempting to warn you; that restlessness of spirit, that impatience of application, which prepare the mind they unhappily influence, to be the prey of every study that has the air of novelty, of every semblance of science that yet remains to be explored.'—

'If then we are emulous of a fair, a lasting, and an honourable fame, we must be content to gather it from our exertions in some certain science, and to wait until time and our labours have matured it; we may, as I have before hinted, make use of other knowledge as auxiliary to this grand acquisition, either by way of usefulness or ornament; but we must not be deluded to make first the one and then the other of these our principal aim. Does a man sit down to write a book for the express purpose of elucidating some disputed point in philosophy? It is but fair to suppose that he must, in the course of his work, refer to many other writers for the support and illustrations of his positions: now, I ask you, what would become of that writer, and of his proposed work, if, seduced by the novelty of the writings to which he thus refers, he were to spend his time and ingenuity in an undue investigation of the ancillary subjects upon which they treated: would not such a conduct as this appear highly reprehensible? nay, would you not look upon so inconsiderate a person as an object worthy rather of contempt than fame? yet by the rapidity and liveliness of his remarks upon these extraneous subjects, it is possible he might greatly delight those who knew or reflected not that his main design lay by neglected: to such a character as this we may compare that man, who either has or ought to have some certain pursuit to which his powers are to be directed, but who neglects the duties of it for a frivolous and momentary applause.

'All this, which may be considered as applicable to the professors of the various sciences, I will now confine and apply to you. You have taken up the profession of the law; that is the science to which your principal attention henceforth is to be directed, and excellence in it is the point towards which all the best and most vigorous faculties of your mind are to be exerted: what, then, is every other pursuit to be absolutely sacrificed to this? Yes, I answer, as a principal pursuit; but with reference to this grand aim, whatever will tend to enlarge your sentiments, to sharpen your wit, to strengthen your judgment, or to augment your knowledge, may still be cultivated.'

On the whole, we have only to repeat our approbation of the good sense, good principles, and good composition of this volume, and our regret that the author has so slightly treated the strictly professional branch of the study. From his experience and opportunities of observation, he is probably well fitted to point out the errors to which young students are most exposed in this respect, and to indicate a path of more easy and rapid advance than that which is usually pursued by the most diligent, if unassisted, inquiry.

ART. VII. *Lalla Rookh*, an Oriental Romance. By Thomas Moore. 4to. 2l. 2s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1817.

WE have often been disposed to feel surprize that, in the selection of their poetical subjects, so many of our modern bards have strayed into the most distant regions of the eastern or the western hemisphere, and yet that no poet of

reputation

reputation had found charms enough to detain him among the enchanted hills and woods of Persia. We have made an excursion of a very early date with Prince Madoc into South America; we have wept with Gertrude of Wyoming over the scenes of desolation in the northern half of the New World; and we have been "*cursed*" by Kehama on the mountains of the Ganges: — but, with the exception of some elegant and lighter efforts, rendered indeed of comparative consequence by such names as those of Professor Carlyle and Sir William Jones, the "bowers of Rochnabad and the streams of Mosellay" have remained unsung; and the riches, the beauty, and the dazzling splendour of Persian courts, or camps, or temples, have been lost on the knowlege and the imagination of English genius.

This rather extraordinary chasm in our polite literature has been amply filled up by the present volume; which will undoubtedly afford an exquisite pleasure, on the whole, to every real lover of a *refined simplicity* and elegance in versification and phraseology; and which will furnish an unmixed treat to the admirers of the more excursive flights of an equally vigorous and playful fancy. Mr. Moore, whose mingled powers of poetry and music are known to every proficient and to every amateur in either of these arts throughout our country, has manifestly prepared himself for this long projected publication, with great care and diligence of study. It is evident, not only from the notes but from the whole contexture of the work, that he has thoroughly imbued his mind with a knowlege of the customs, manners, and habits of that part of the East which he has chosen for the scene of his poetical adventures. Every peculiar production of the lands or seas, with which he surrounds his characters, seems by turns to supply him with the most apposite and ingenious similes or illustrations; and a beautiful variety of these novel ideas may be found in Lalla Rookh. We will now make our readers acquainted with this lady, as we believe many of them will be surprized to find Lalla Rookh to be; — such, however, she is, and a very interesting specimen of a sex to whom this poet appears to devote at least a proportionate share of his attention. Perhaps we cannot introduce his heroine (if such she may be called) in a more concise manner than the author himself has done in a passage at the commencement of his story:

'In the eleventh year of the reign of Aurungzebe, Abdalla, King of the Lesser Bucharia, a lineal descendant from the Great Zingis, having abdicated the throne in favour of his son, set out on a pilgrimage to the Shrine of the Prophet; and, passing into India through the delightful valley of Cashmere, rested for a short time at Delhi on his way. He was entertained by Aurungzebe in a style of magnificent hospitality, worthy alike of the visitor and the host, and was afterwards escorted with the same splendour to Surat, where he embarked for Arabia. During the stay of the Royal Pilgrim at Delhi, a marriage was agreed upon between the Prince, his son, and the youngest daughter of the Emperor, LALLA ROOKH; — a Princess described by the poets of her time, as more beautiful than Leila, Shirine, Dewildé, or any of those heroines whose names and loves embellish the songs of Persia and Hindostan. It was intended that the nuptials should be celebrated at Cashmere; where the young King, as soon as the cares of empire would permit, was to meet, for the first time, his lovely bride, and, after a few months' repose in that enchanting valley, conduct her over the snowy hills into Bucharia.'

We omit the description of the streets of Delhi, and of the parting scene between Lalla Rookh and her imperial father; proceeding to the picture of the procession, which the reader is to accompany to the end of the romance:

> ' Seldom had the Eastern world seen a cavalcade so superb. From the gardens in the suburbs to the Imperial palace, it was one unbroken line of splendour. The gallant appearance of the Rajas and Mogul lords, distinguished by those insignia of the Emperor's favour, the feathers of the egret of Cashmere in their turbans, and the small silver-rimmed kettle-drums at the bows of their saddles; — the costly armour of their cavaliers, who vied, on this occasion, with the guards of the great Keder Khan, in the brightness of their silver battle-axes and the massiness of their maces of gold; — the glittering of the gilt pine-apples on the tops of the palankeens; — the embroidered trappings of the elephants, bearing on their backs small turrets, in the shape of little antique temples, within which the ladies of LALLA ROOKH lay, as it were, enshrined; — the rose-coloured veils of the Princess's own sumptuous litter, at the front of which a fair young female slave sat fanning her through the curtains, with feathers of the Argus pheasant's wing; — and the lovely troop of Tartarian and Cashmerian maids of honour, whom the young King had sent to accompany his bride, and who rode on each side of the litter, upon small Arabian horses; — all was brilliant, tasteful, and magnificent, and pleased even the critical and fastidious FADLADEEN, Great Nazir or Chamberlain of the Haram, who was borne in his palankeen immediately after the Princess, and considered himself not the least important personage of the pageant.'

It was necessary to bring this 'important personage' before our readers; because he occurs, and with increasing dignity of character, corpulence, and criticism, at every pause or break of the poetry.—We must now also apprize the astonished tyro in the vagaries of the modern metrical romance, that these pauses or breaks in the volume which we are examining

mining consist of "pure prose!"—that it is *pure*, it will be said, is something: but wherefore *prose?* This is a question which we cannot decidedly answer. When Macrobius compared Homer and Virgil, he was obliged to intersperse his own prose with the poetry of his two great subjects of comparison:—when Strada wrote his *Prolusiones*, this medley was equally natural:—Boethius *De Consolatione*, and Barclay in his Argenis, and Walton in his "Complete Angler," and those modern classics, Dr. Trapp in his Prælections, and Professor Coplestone, were driven, as it were, into a similar mixture:—but it is choice, unbiassed choice, and neither convenience nor necessity, which occasioned the practice in this volume. Mr. Moore certainly might have formed the string, on which his pearls are hung, of any texture that he pleased; and he *has* made it of a sort of serio-comic prose, of the effect of which our readers must really judge for themselves, since we cannot pretend to guide any person's taste in a matter of such very uncertain decision. No one bath, it is said, is of *precisely* the same temperature to any two patients. How, then, shall we lay down a general rule for appreciating the criticisms of Fadladeen? One thing we will venture to predict;—that *many* will agree in the justice of *some* of these criticisms, and will also be of opinion that the author has evinced more humour and good-humour than safe policy, in thus anticipating the remarks of severe censors, and in furnishing dull malignity with the borrowed arrows of satire. For ourselves, we are so delighted with the entire change in Fadladeen's opinions at the conclusion of the work, when he discovers —— but *we* will make no discoveries, calculated to diminish the pleasure of our readers. We hasten to finish the analysis of the connecting story of Lalla Rookh; and to announce that, during her journey to Cashmere, the bridal procession is accompanied by a young poet named Feramorz: who, not having the adequate fear of Fadladeen before his eyes, continues to amuse them at their several woodland resting-places for the night, with various poetical "Arabian Nights' Entertainments;"—that, finally, the bride arrives at Cashmere;—and that —— but here we chuse to imitate Dinarzade of happily interrupted memory, and to leave the remainder of the romance to the diligent research of the reader.

The first story, sung to the lute of Feramorz, is intitled 'The Veiled Prophet of Khorassan.' The subject turns on the historical record of an impostor named Hakem ben Haschem, (called Mocanna, from the veil of silver gauze which he always wore,) who, in the year of the Hegira 163, created much alarm throughout the eastern empire. Among the numerous victims of this impious wretch, whether sacrificed to his ambition or to his lust, is one unhappy female, Zelica; who, having been led to believe that her lover Azim was dead, becomes distracted in consequence of her grief, and, falling thus into the power of the impostor, is turned into an instrument of his deceitful influence over the blinded multitude of his followers. Her lover himself at length joins the Prophet's standard; and a dreadful meeting (not *planned* so well as it ought to have been) takes place between them. She recovers her reason for a while. We extract a part of this description:

> ' It was indeed the touch of those lov'd lips
> Upon her eyes that chac'd their short eclipse,
> And, gradual as the snow, at heaven's breath,
> Melts off and shows the azure flowers beneath,
> Her lids unclos'd, and the bright eyes were seen
> Gazing on his; — not, as they late had been,
> Quick, restless, wild, but mournfully serene,
> As if to lie, ev'n for that tranced minute,
> So near his heart, had consolation in it;
> And thus to wake in his belov'd caress
> Took from her soul one half its wretchedness.
> But, when she heard him call her good and pure,
> Oh 'twas too much — too dreadful to endure!
> Shuddering she broke away from his embrace,
> And, hiding with both hands her guilty face,
> Said, in a tone whose anguish would have riven
> A heart of very marble, " Pure! — oh Heaven." —
>
> ' That tone — those looks so chang'd — the withering blight,
> That sin and sorrow leave where'er they light —
> The dead despondency of those sunk eyes,
> Where once, had he thus met her by surprize,
> He would have seen himself, too happy boy,
> Reflected in a thousand lights of joy;
> And then the place, that bright unholy place,
> Where vice lay hid beneath each winning grace
> And charm of luxury, as the viper weaves
> Its wily covering of sweet balsam-leaves; —
> All struck upon his heart, sudden and cold
> As death itself; — it needs not to be told —
> No, no — he sees it all, plain as the brand
> Of burning shame can mark — whate'er the hand,
> That could from heav'n and him such brightness sever,
> 'Tis done — to heav'n and him she's lost for ever!
> It was a dreadful moment; not the tears
> The lingering, lasting misery of years
> Could match that minute's anguish — all the worst
> Of sorrow's elements in that dark burst

Broke o'er his soul, and with one crash of fate,
Laid the whole hopes of his life desolate!
'"Oh! curse me not," she cried, as wild he toss'd
His desperate hand tow'rds heav'n — "though I am lost,
Think not that guilt, that falsehood made me fall,
No, no — 'twas grief, 'twas madness did it all!
Nay, doubt me not — though all thy love hath ceas'd —
I know it hath — yet, yet believe, at least,
That every spark of reason's light must be
Quench'd in this brain, ere I could stray from thee!
They told me thou wert dead — why, Azim, why
Did we not, both of us, that instant die
When we were parted? — oh! could'st thou but know
With what a deep devotedness of woe
I wept thy absence — o'er and o'er again
Thinking of thee, still thee, till thought grew pain,
And memory, like a drop that, night and day,
Falls cold and ceaseless, wore my heart away!
Didst thou but know how pale I sat at home,
My eyes still turn'd the way thou wert to come,
And, all the long, long night of hope and fear,
Thy voice and step still sounding in my ear —
Oh God! thou would'st not wonder that, at last,
When every hope was all at once o'ercast,
When I heard frightful voices round me say
Azim is dead! — this wretched brain gave way,
And I became a wreck, at random driven,
Without one glimpse of reason or of Heaven —
All wild — and ev'n this quenchless love within
Turn'd to foul fires to light me into sin!
Thou pitiest me — I knew thou would'st — that sky
Hath nought beneath it half so lorn as I.
The fiend, who lur'd me hither — hist! come near,
Or thou too, *thou* art lost, if he should hear —
Told me such things — oh! with such devilish art,
As would have ruin'd ev'n a holier heart —
Of thee, and of that ever-radiant sphere,
Where bless'd at length, if I but serv'd *him* here,
I should for ever live in thy dear sight,
And drink from those pure eyes eternal light!
Think, think how lost, how madden'd I must be,
To hope that guilt could lead to God or thee!"'

We are compelled to break off this very interesting quotation, long before we have exhausted its beauties: but so many passages have claims on our attention, that we must endeavour to present our readers with as great a variety of subjects as we can introduce.

Before, however, we proceed to the execution of this pleasant task, it will be necessary for us to make some remarks on the preceding extract. First, we think it is obvious that

Mr. Moore has adopted a somewhat different theory of poetical style from that which, judging by his practice, he formerly maintained. We have used the terms '*refined simplicity,*' as characteristic of his manner in the present volume; and it was not without consideration that we admitted this phrase into our general preliminary observations: for, although refinement of style, in contra-distinction to the familiarity and the vulgarity of many of his versifying contemporaries, was the peculiar and proud mark of Mr. Moore's former writings, yet we do not recollect any thing in this author like the pervading simplicity of the publication before us. We should be very sorry that any persons, whose judgement we esteem, were to suppose us deficient in admiration of this great quality of composition. It is so closely connected with perspicuity, and with that pellucid clearness of meaning which eminently distinguishes our older writers, that we cannot but most highly value it. Still, however, as we have more than once had occasion to remark of late, a visible and indeed a vast gulph lies between the simplicity of the moderns and that of the antients; and here we do not only refer to the plain dignity of the classics, properly so called, (*illa priorum simplicitas,*) but we still more especially allude to many of our own greater poets, to Dryden, to Otway, and some others. Yet it appears to us that these excellent models of expression, while they steer clear of the regions of bombast and obscurity, do not (except in their grosser passages) run against the rocks of familiarity, and of a low sort of *conversation*, or even *nursery*, manner, impressing their hearers with the sort of feeling which they would have on being made the unwilling listeners to a dialogue between very common-place persons, or young uninteresting children. We have often avowed our sentiments that such is the burthen on our minds, when we rise from perusing, as dire necessity will at times demand, some of the more infantine efforts of Mr. Wordsworth; — and now that we have been compelled to mention this gentleman, in the requisite way of illustration, we cannot help seriously lamenting that the *comparatively* few pathetic and even sublime instances in his poems, in which the admission of this extreme simplicity of diction has been successful, have so blinded some authors even of superior genius in the present day, as to have had the same effect on them that two or three quack doctor's cures never fail to produce on the wretched remnant of his patients, whom his art has reduced to that remnant out of a thriving multitude. When Lord Byron, when Mr. Moore himself, (to whom we confess, above all others, we anxiously looked for the preservation of a pure and exalted taste in poetical expression,) has fallen into this vulgar error of the day, and has occasionally written verse as if not he, but some one greatly his inferior, was talking prose, we are required, by every motive of love and zeal for the honour of the English muse, to mark and to reprobate such an aberration from his own better principles and practice of composition. Akin to this fault, is that of a too loose and irregular frame of verse. The fondness for variety, or the fear of monotony, has led Mr. Moore into this fault. Here, also, he has perhaps imbibed a too copious draught of the rythmical doctrines of the modern school, and has suffered his own exquisite ear to be misled by vicious example. Our more observant readers will be at no loss to discover several instances of both the defects to which we have alluded, in the preceding extract: but we shall point them out, specifically, as we advance.

While we are speaking on the subject, we may be permitted to appeal to those who are competent to decide such a question, whether they ever experienced, in the perusal of Dryden's Fables for instance, any want of variety of rythm, any too frequent recurrence of similar pauses, any monotony of cadence? We feel assured that the more finished pages of this peculiarly harmonious writer have proved, to a demonstration, that the regular English couplet is susceptible of every change of modulation that the most truly musical ear can require; and, if this be the case, and at the same time no such licences are to be found in this great poet as those which disfigure the versification of his more audacious successors, will it not follow that they must injudiciously have had recourse to older models, and must have imitated those who, in the infancy of English poetry, were too little confined by any critical rules of composition: whose taste was not equal to their genius; who could not therefore unconsciously make rules for themselves: who lived, in a word, before

> "Waller was smooth; and Dryden taught to join
> The varying verse, the full resounding line,
> The long majestic march, and energy divine."

In *his* "*Variations*," indeed, if Mr. Moore would have more frequently favoured us with the noble Alexandrine, as well as the triplet, which he has sometimes introduced with effect, we should not have complained: but it is the overlapping of verses, *constantly* repeated, that we must censure; it is the pause occurring *constantly* at every possible syllable, it is the imitation, in a word, of the Draytons, and Websters, and Witherses of old, filtered through the cullender of a Southey or a Wordsworth, which we cannot with any patience behold in a writer who has more true poetic genius, and (let us not be forced to say who *had!*) more true poetic taste, than a whole swarm of such dead May-flies, or living summer-gnats, put together.

Mr. Moore has too much discrimination, and beyond a doubt too much candour, to pervert our meaning into a recommendation of inflated diction, or of exuberant ornament, or of the least degree of exaltation of style *above* the subject-matter. Neither will he suppose us to be praising the confessedly too great uniformity of Pope's versification; whose unvarying melody is certainly somewhat like the dying hum of the bee, lost in his own honey. No, it is not such unchangeable sweetness as this that we would wish to see return among us; nor is it the fustian of Nat. Lee, or the pomposity of Young, that we are panegyrizing on the present occasion. It is the language and the flow of Dryden in his happier efforts. Let our poets rest here; and as to any newly revived old vagaries, let them be left on the shores of that Lake whence they have unfortunately emanated, to deluge our literature with a taste equally puerile and prosaic.

We have done; and our readers shall be refreshed with some more of the 'Veiled Prophet.'

A powerfully painted scene occurs, in which our indignation is excited to the utmost against the cold and savage impostor; who, retired from the presence of his deluded followers, is revelling in secret luxury, and venting the villainous burthen of his soul in imagined solitude:

'And still he drank and ponder'd—nor could see
Th' approaching maid, so deep his reverie;
At length, with fiendish laugh, like that which broke
From EBLIS at the Fall of Man, he spoke:—
"Yes, ye vile race, for hell's amusement given,
Too mean for earth, yet claiming kin with heaven;
God's images, forsooth!—such gods as he
Whom INDIA serves, the monkey deity;—
Ye creatures of a breath, proud things of clay,
To whom if LUCIFER, as grandams say,
Refus'd, though at the forfeit of heaven's light,
To bend in worship, LUCIFER was right!—
Soon shall I plant this foot upon the neck
Of your foul race, and without fear or check,
Luxuriating in hate, avenge my shame,
My deep-felt, long-nurst loathing of man's name!—
Soon, at the head of myriads, blind and fierce
As hooded falcons, through the universe
I'll sweep my darkening, desolating way,
Weak man my instrument, curst man my prey!

'Ye wise, ye learn'd, who grope your dull way on
By the dim twinkling gleams of ages gone,
Like superstitious thieves, who think the light
From dead men's marrow guides them best at night—
Ye shall have honours — wealth — yes, Sages, yes —
I know, grave fools, your wisdom's nothingness;
Undazzled it can track yon starry sphere,
But a gilt stick, a bauble blinds it here.
How I shall laugh, when trumpetted along,
In lying speech, and still more lying song,
By these learn'd slaves, the meanest of the throng;
Their wits bought up, their wisdom shrunk so small,
A sceptre's puny point can wield it all!'

This passage manifests a formidable strain of sarcasm, and of appropriate impiety, which strongly displays the author's dramatic power of exhibiting character.

We turn to a more gentle description:

'Ah ZELICA! there *was* a time, when bliss
Shone o'er thy heart from every look of his;
When but to see him, hear him, breathe the air
In which he dwelt, was thy soul's fondest prayer!
When round him hung such a perpetual spell,
Whate'er he did, none ever did so well.
Too happy days! when, if he touch'd a flower
Or gem of thine, 'twas sacred from that hour;
When thou didst study him, till every tone
And gesture and dear look became thy own,—
Thy voice like his, the changes of his face
In thine reflected with still lovelier grace,
Like echo, sending back sweet music, fraught
With twice th' aerial sweetness it had brought!
Yet now he comes—brighter than even he
E'er beam'd before,—but ah! not bright for thee;
No — dread, unlook'd for, like a visitant
From the' other world, he comes as if to haunt
Thy guilty soul with dreams of lost delight,
Long lost to all but memory's aching sight:—
Sad dreams! as when the Spirit of our Youth
Returns in sleep, sparkling with all the truth
And innocence once ours, and leads us back,
In mournful mockery, o'er the shining track
Of our young life, and points out every ray
Of hope and peace we've lost upon the way!
Once happy fair!—'

In the subjoined quotation, we have a proof of the author's versatility of talent. He has just breathed the very soul of tenderness and delicacy in the exquisite lines above-copied; and we shall now see him, in the spirited catalogue of the hostile forces of the Caliph and of Mokanna, manifesting that rare union of knowlege and genius which has adorned a few of these most difficult efforts of poetry:

' Ne'er did the march of Mahadi display
Such pomp before;—not ev'n when on his way
To Mecca's Temple, when both land and sea
Were spoil'd to feed the Pilgrim's luxury;*
When round him, mid the burning sands, he saw
Fruits of the North in icy freshness thaw,
And cool'd his thirsty lip, beneath the glow
Of Mecca's sun, with urns of Persian snow:†—
Nor e'er did armament more grand that that
Pour from the kingdoms of the Caliphat.
First, in the van, the People of the Rock,‡
On their light mountain steeds, of royal stock;§
Then, Chieftains of Damascus, proud to see
The flashing of their swords' rich marquetry.||
Men, from the regions near the Volga's mouth,
Mix'd with the rude, black archers of the South;
And Indian lancers, in white-turban'd ranks
From the far Sinde, or Attock's sacred banks,
With dusky legions from the Land of Myrrh,¶
And many a mace-arm'd Moor and Mid-Sea islander.

' Nor less in number, though more new and rude
In warfare's school, was the vast multitude
That, fir'd by zeal, or by oppression wrong'd,
Round the white standard of th' Impostor throng'd.
Beside his thousands of Believers,—blind,
Burning and headlong as the Samiel wind,—
Many who felt, and more who fear'd to feel
The bloody Islamite's converting steel,
Flock'd to his banner;—Chiefs of the' Uzbek race
Waving their heron crests with martial grace;**
Turkomans, countless as their flocks, led forth
From the' aromatic pastures of the North;

' * Mahadi, in a single pilgrimage to Mecca, expended six millions of dinars of gold.'

' † Nivem Meccam apportavit, rem ibi aut nunquam aut raro visam. — *Abulfeda.*'

' ‡ The inhabitants of Hejaz or Arabia Petræa, called by an Eastern writer "The People of the Rock." — *Ebn Haukal.*'

' § "Those horses, called by the Arabians Kochlani, of whom a written genealogy has been kept for 2000 years. They are said to derive their origin from King Solomon's steeds." — *Niebuhr.*'

' || "Many of the figures on the blades of their swords are wrought in gold or silver, or in marquetry with small gems." — *Asiat. Misc.* vol. i.'

' ¶ Azab or Saba.'

' ** "The chiefs of the Uzbek Tartars wear a plume of white heron's feathers in their turbans." — *Account of Independent Tartary.*'

Wild warriors of the turquoise hills *, — and those
Who dwell beyond the everlasting snows
Of HINDOO KOSH†, in stormy freedom bred,
Their fort the rock, their camp the torrent's bed.
But none, of all who own'd the Chief's command,
Rush'd to that battle-field with bolder hand,
Or sterner hate than IRAN's outlaw'd men,
Her Worshippers of Fire‡ — all panting then
For vengeance on the' accursed Saracen;
Vengeance at last for their dear country spurn'd,
Her throne usurp'd, and her bright shrines o'erturn'd.
From YEZD's § eternal mansion of the Fire,
Where aged saints in dreams of Heav'n expire;
From BADKU, and those fountains of blue flame
That burn into the CASPIAN‖, fierce they came,
Careless for what or whom the blow was sped,
So vengeance triumph'd, and their tyrants bled!

'Such was the wild and miscellaneous host,
That high in air their motley banners tost
Around the Prophet-Chief — all eyes still bent
Upon that glittering Veil, where'er it went,
That beacon through the battle's stormy flood,
That rainbow of the field, whose showers were blood!'

We shall be satisfied with the example of Mr. Moore's oriental research which is afforded by the whole of the foregoing selection, and shall again relieve our readers from the glare of pomp, or the violence of passion, by one of those beautiful common-places which abound in this volume.

'* In the mountains of Nishapour and Tous (in Khorassan) they find turquoises. — *Ebn Haukal.*'

'† For a description of these stupendous ranges of mountains, v. *Elphinstone's Caubul.*'

'‡ The Ghebers or Guebres, those original natives of Persia, who adhered to their ancient faith, the religion of Zoroaster, and who, after the conquest of their country by the Arabs, were either persecuted at home, or forced to become wanderers abroad.'

'§ "Yezd, the chief residence of those ancient natives, who worship the Sun and the Fire, which latter they have carefully kept lighted, without being once extinguished for a moment, above 3000 years, on a mountain near Yezd, called Ater Quedah, signifying the House or Mansion of the Fire. He is reckoned very unfortunate who dies off that mountain." — *Stephen's Persia.*'

'‖ "When the weather is hazy, the springs of Naptha (on an island near Baku) boil up the higher, and the Naptha often takes fire on the surface of the earth, and runs in a flame into the sea to a distance almost incredible." — *Hanway on the Everlasting Fire at Baku.*'

Oh Reason! who shall say what spells renew,
When least we look for it, thy broken clew!
Through what small vistas o'er the darken'd brain
Thy intellectual day-beam bursts again;
And how, like forts, to which beleaguerers win
Unhop'd-for entrance through some friend within,
One clear idea, wakened in the breast
By memory's magic, lets in all the rest!
Would it were thus, unhappy girl, with thee!
But, though light came, it came but partially;
Enough to show the maze, in which thy sense
Wander'd about, — but not to guide it thence;
Enough to glimmer o'er the yawning wave,
But not to point the harbour which might save.
Hours of delight and peace, long left behind,
With that dear form came rushing o'er her mind;
But oh! to think how deep her soul had gone
In shame and falsehood, since those moments shone;
And, then, her oath — *there* madness lay again,
And, shuddering, back she sunk into her chain
Of mental darkness, as if blest to flee
From light, whose every glimpse was agony!
Yet, *one* relief this glance of former years
Brought, mingled with its pain, — tears, floods of tears,
Long frozen at her heart, but now like rills
Let loose in spring-time from the snowy hills,
And gushing warm, after a sleep of frost,
Through valleys where their flow had long been lost!'

Surely these lines convey a touching description of the most unhappy of all human disorders; and of that very curious but appalling phænomenon at some stages of insanity, the sudden, transient, and imperfect recovery of reason.

We shall now deem it incumbent on us to quote some stanzas, in which one of the brilliant and peculiar traits of this author's genius, — we mean the vividness and the distinctness of his imagination, exercised on a subject of light and playful elegance, — is happily brought forwards, and with unusually sustained splendour. Azim, in the midst of the luxuries of Mokanna's palace, is pensively musing on the virtues and the charms of his absent Zelica:

'While thus he thinks, still nearer on the breeze
Come those delicious, dream-like harmonies,
Each note of which but adds new, downy links
To the soft chain in which his spirit sinks.
He turns him tow'rd the sound, and, far away
Through a long vista, sparkling with the play
Of countless lamps, — like the rich track which Day
Leaves on the waters, when he sinks from us;
So long the path, its light so tremulous; —
He sees a groupe of female forms advance,
Some chain'd together in the mazy dance

By fetters, forg'd in the green sunny bowers,
As they were captives to the King of Flowers;—
And some disporting round, unlink'd and free,
Who seem'd to mock their sisters' slavery,
And round and round them still, in wheeling flight
Went, like gay moths about a lamp at night;—
While others wak'd, as gracefully along
Their feet kept time, the very soul of song
From psaltery, pipe, and lutes of heavenly thrill,
Or their own youthful voices, heavenlier still!
And now they come, now pass before his eye,
Forms such as Nature moulds, when she would vie
With Fancy's pencil, and give birth to things
Lovely beyond its fairest picturings!
Awhile they dance before him, then divide,
Breaking, like rosy clouds at even-tide
Around the rich pavilion of the sun,—
Till silently dispersing, one by one,
Through many a path that from the chamber leads
To gardens, terraces, and moonlight meads,
Their distant laughter comes upon the wind,
And but one trembling nymph remains behind.
Beck'ning them back in vain, for they are gone,
And she is left in all that light alone;
No veil to curtain o'er her beauteous brow,
In its young bashfulness more beauteous now;
But a light, golden chain-work round her hair,
Such as the maids of YEZD and SHIRAZ wear,
From which, on either side, gracefully hung
A golden amulet, in the Arab tongue,
Engraven o'er with some immortal line
From holy writ, or bard scarce less divine;
While her left hand, as shrinkingly she stood,
Held a small lute of gold and sandal-wood,
Which, once or twice, she touch'd with hurried strain,
Then took her trembling fingers off again.'

A painter, possessed of any clearness of conception, could certainly embody the whole of this scene from the description before him: but great, indeed, must be the skill of that pencil, which could preserve all the soft aerial colouring, all the fairy-like delicacy, of the original.

Long as our extracts from this first poem (and there are three to follow!) already have been, one other passage has so much truth and nature and such an enchanting tenderness about it, that we cannot refrain from transcribing it. The catastrophe of 'the Veiled Prophet' we shall not communicate; since it is our wish not to lessen, any farther than our task of criticism absolutely requires, the curiosity and interest which the work must excite in its first perusal. Suffice it to say that Zelica is lying wounded in Azim's arms, and even here we are aware of being compelled to say too much:

> ' " But this is sweeter—oh! believe me, yes—
> I would not change this sad, but dear caress,
> This death within thy arms I would not give
> For the most smiling life the happiest live!
> All, that stood dark and drear before the eye
> Of my stray'd soul, is passing swiftly by;
> A light comes o'er me from those looks of love,
> Like the first dawn of mercy from above;
> And if thy lips but tell me I'm forgiven,
> Angels will echo the blest words in heaven!
> But live, my Azim;—oh! to call thee mine
> Thus once again!—*my* Azim—dream divine!
> Live, if thou ever lov'dst me, if to meet
> Thy Zelica hereafter would be sweet,
> Oh live to pray for her—to bend the knee
> Morning and night before that Deity,
> To whom pure lips and hearts without a stain,
> As thine are, Azim, never breath'd in vain,—
> And pray that He may pardon her,—may take
> Compassion on her soul for thy dear sake,
> And, nought remembering but her love to thee,
> Make her all thine, all His, eternally!
> Go to those happy fields where first we twin'd
> Our youthful hearts together—every wind
> That meets thee there, fresh from the well-known flowers,
> Will bring the sweetness of those innocent hours
> Back to thy soul, and thou may'st feel again
> For thy poor Zelica as thou did'st then.
> So shall thy orisons, like dew that flies
> To heav'n upon the morning's sunshine, rise
> With all love's earliest ardour to the skies!
> And should they—but alas! my senses fail—
> Oh for one minute!—should thy prayers prevail—
> If pardon'd souls may from that World of Bliss
> Reveal their joy to those they love in this,—
> I'll come to thee—in some sweet dream—and tell—
> Oh Heaven—I die—dear love! farewell, farewell." '

With the exception of a few detached beauties, and some examples of the faults which we have generally censured, we must here bid adieu to 'the Veiled Prophet.' We shall prefix a brief title to each extract of the nature just mentioned, and thus enable our readers to judge more clearly of the correctness of our opinions.

Grecian Liberty.

> ' Oh! who could, ev'n in bondage, tread the plains
> Of glorious Greece, nor feel his spirit rise
> Kindling within him? who, with heart and eyes,

Could walk where Liberty had been, nor see
The shining foot-prints of her Deity,
Nor feel those god-like breathings in the air,
Which mutely told her spirit had been there?'

Perfectibility of Human Nature.

——'those dreams of good that, vainly grand,
Haunt the young heart;—proud views of human-kind,
Of men to Gods exalted and refin'd;—
False views, like that horizon's fair deceit,
Where earth and heav'n but *seem*, alas, to meet!—'

Revived Associations of Youth.

'While the young Arab, haunted by the smell
Of her own mountain-flowers, as by a spell,—
The sweet Elcaya, and that courteous tree
Which bows to all who seek its canopy—
Sees, call'd up round her by these magic scents,
The well, the camels, and her father's tents;
Sighs for the home she left with little pain,
And wishes ev'n its sorrows back again!'

The last couplet is very much in the manner of that inimitable painter of natural scenes and feelings, Goldsmith; a name which we would earnestly beg to add to the small list of those genuine sons of *Simplicity*, who have never degraded their parent below the rank of a classical Muse. The poet, also, to whom Lalla Rookh is dedicated, the poet of Memory, may certainly claim a place in that honoured number; and his practice justifies our opinions. The idea, conveyed in the close of the last extract, well-known and beautiful as it is, was never more sweetly expressed than in that often-quoted passage of the eleventh Satire of Juvenal,

"*Suspirat longo non visam tempore matrem,*
Et casulam, et notos tristis desiderat hædos."

Innocence.

——'"thou hast breath'd such purity, thy lay
Returns so fondly to youth's virtuous day,
And leads thy soul—if e'er it wander'd thence—
So gently back to its first innocence,
That I would sooner stop th' unchained dove,
When swift returning to its home of love,
And round its snowy wing new fetters twine,
Than turn from virtue one pure wish of thine!"'

Desperate Courage.

In vain MOKANNA, midst the general flight,
Stands, like the red moon, on some stormy night,
Among the fugitive clouds that, hurrying by,
Leave only her unshaken in the sky!—'

We now come to our reluctant office of pointing out what we conceive to be the defects of this noble effort of genius. — In the first place, we do not wish to dwell on the *plan*, any farther than to say that a very little management would have avoided the fault to which we alluded before, when we mentioned the *manner* in which Azim and Zelica are brought together. Pity for the one, and admiration of the other, should have prevented this painful incident: but we should ourselves commit the very offence which we censure, if we spoke more plainly on the subject. We are loth to say any thing of the blasphemies of the Impostor; they are in character, no doubt: but some of them will excite a shudder among the less firm of their audience. The dreadful scene which precedes and follows the unveiling of the mysterious countenance is admirably executed; but we shall not mutilate such a passage, nor spoil the freshness of the reader's pleasure.

In adverting to particular lines and expressions, it will be sufficient, for the most part, simply to quote them; because the reasons of our censure will be manifest, from the explanation of our principles of criticism on these points which we have so often given.

An unworthy simile, lowering the object which it is intended to illustrate, is appended to the following four lines, which in themselves are not only unobjectionable but beautiful:

> ' Oh grief, beyond all other griefs, when fate
> First leaves the young heart lone and desolate
> In the wide world, without that only tie
> For which it lov'd to live or fear'd to die; —
> *Lorn as the hung-up lute that ne'er hath spoken*
> *Since the sad day its master-chord was broken!'*

Had the latter subject been compared to the former, it would have been obviously ennobled and exalted: but the contrary effect is produced at present, by a species of perverted comparison very common in modern poetry.

Just before this passage, occurs one of the numerous lines in which a wrong accentuation is vainly attempted to be slurred under a rythmical variety:

> —— ' those sounds of dread
> Fell withering on her soul, " Azim is dead!" '

Just below, we have a 'galaxy of lips and eyes;' and this may be pretty and proper Mohammedanism: but certainly a redundancy of these features, particularly the last, is visible throughout the volume: —

> ' Woman's bright eyes, a dazzling host of eyes.'

——'from the flash
That lightens boldly through the shadowy lash,
To the sly, stealing splendours, almost hid
Like swords half-sheath'd, beneath the downcast lid.'

This is somewhat Darwinian; and the same may be said of the Complete Florist's Garden, which is exhibited in various parts of the volume, particularly in the last story; where, indeed, we are so clogged and lost in sweets, that we fancy ourselves imprisoned in a kind of Confectioner's shop; or a bazar, perhaps, uniting the two trades above-mentioned with that of a Perfumer; so that we struggle from bottles of Eau de Cologne, and boxes of musk, into beds of the rose and the ranunculus, only to be finally relieved by pots of raspberry-jam, unmitigated by a morsel of biscuit! — We are again, however, wandering from our specific task; and the author's irregular troops recall us to a skirmish with them. He has attempted, in one of those anticipations which we have described in our introductory remarks, to foil the thrusts of criticism at this favourite corps of Cossacks, but, we think, without success. "Fleas are *not* lobsters, d—n their souls!" and trochees are not iambics. Words *must* be pronounced (confound them!) as they are accentuated, whatever havoc they make with versification. — The line which Mr. Moore has chosen for his *point d'appui*, and on which he rests his defence of a whole host of brothers, —

Gigantei fratres, — Titania prolès, —

of extraordinary dimensions, we shall leave to Fadladeen: but we beg to enter our protest against the subjoined candidates for the aukward squad. Our readers will have observed such of their likenesses as may have occurred to blemish the beautiful passages which we have quoted: but, at all events, we shall not more plainly point them out. Let them be lost in the blaze of light that surrounds them.

'No! had not reason's light *totally set*.'

'That ecstacy, which from the depth of *sadness*
Glares like the maniac's moon, whose light is *madness*.'

This sort of double Hudibrastic termination we sufficiently condemned in our review of the vigorous poem of Rimini. The present author should be above any indulgences of so superfluous a description: — but what is the *maniac's moon?* Of the harvest-moon we have heard, and of several other distinct species of moons: but we thought that all moons had been equally connected with the unhappy lunatic; unless, indeed, there be some recondite allusion to the particular and periodic returns of this supposed influence.

> '—— None but a *lover*
> Could in that wreck of beauty's shrine *discover*
> The once ador'd divinity!'
>
> 'But safe as yet that *Spirit of Evil* lives.'
>
> '*Among the last of whom*, the silver veil
> Is seen glittering at times, *like the white sail*
> *Of some toss'd vessel.*'

In these lines, the three sorts of *vagary* to which we directed the reader's observation are all exemplified. Here is the familiar *vagary*, in the prosaic expressions, '*Among the last of whom*;' the rough inharmonious *vagary*, in the clause, '*Is seen glittering at times*;' and, lastly, the overlapping *vagary*, in the conclusion, 'like the white sail of some toss'd vessel.' How easy, how inexpressibly easy, it must be to write such verses as these, in comparison with the attempt to compose a single passage in the simple but sweet and dignified style of Goldsmith, (to mention the last alone of our chosen favourites,) or in the natural and better manner of Mr. Moore himself. Assured as we are, by his very powerful and original productions, that the poet in question could, if he pleased, with comparative facility, avoid *all* the errors of expression and versification into which he has of late fallen, we have bestowed and shall continue to bestow considerable pains on this his longest effort, — but not even yet his best effort, if he chuses, (as we warmly urge him,) to make a still higher attempt; if he chuses to efface the mark of dishonour from the annals of English literature; and not to leave one of the first nations that has stamped its memory on time, destitute of a single great poem erected on a patriotic foundation.

We are forced, in pursuance of our object, to return to the ungracious task of verbal criticism.

Among the many examples of prosaic or familiar words which the volume affords, introduced in such a manner as to give a low or ludicrous effect, we mark the following:

> ——'airy as the dancing spray,
> When from its stem the *small bird* wings away.'

Only substitute *Tom-Tit* for *small bird*, and see the effect.

> ——'through the evening dusk
> She now went slowly to that *small* kiosk.'
>
> ——'as the sea-dog *dotes*
> Upon the *small* sweet fry, that round him floats.'
>
> 'On one side gleaming with a sudden *grace*
> Through water, brilliant as the crystal *vase*

In which it undulates, *small* fishes shine
Like golden ingots from a fairy mine;
While on the other,' &c. &c. (*side* understood.)

This fondness for the epithet *small* reminds us of the celebrated tale of Little Red Riding Hood; where, in a modern versification of the story, the wolf tells his young visitor,

"I've got a *small* cold in my head."

Enough of this.

—— 'Forth like a diminutive mountain-tide,
Into the boundless sea they speed their course.'

These are rather like the Miltonic cadences of blank verse, than such as we have been used to consider as the legitimate and musical varieties of rhyme. A very popular joke circulates among modern *anti-harmonists*, about not counting syllables on the fingers. Have they forgotten that Horace, when he gives *much* to the ear, does not take away all from the fingers?

"*Legitimumque sonum digitis callemus et aure.*"

'Have you forgot the eye of glory, hid
Beneath this veil, the flashing of *whose* lid
Could, like a sun-stroke of the desert *wither*
Millions *of such as* yonder Chief brings *hither.*'

'I will myself uncurtain in your sight
The wonders of this brow's *ineffable* light—
Then lead you forth, and with a *wink* disperse
Yon myriads howling through the universe.'

We shall conclude this long critique, reserving the remainder of the volume for our next Number, with two or three remarks of a similar nature: but not until we have recalled to the reader's recollection the pathetic, the glowing, and the highly animated passages which we have already presented to his perusal; nor without requesting him, and the author, to believe that we love much better to enjoy the beams of the sun, reflected in the scenery beneath him, than to gaze on his spots, however alarmingly they may have increased of late.

The phrases, 'some years since,' 'some months since,' &c. occur with as much *sang froid* in this poem as if poetry really admitted them; and a fault yet remains to be noticed, into which we did not imagine that this author would have fallen. Terror and Pity have been considered as the rightful divinities who preside over the tragic and the epic temple; and it has been thought that the excitement even of moral *horror* must be cautiously managed. It may be salutary, however, to be at times disgusted with exhibitions of depraved feeling: but natural *horror*, or disgust raised by revolting physical objects, can never be allowed in modern poetry, whatever the stronger stomachs of the antients may have endured. On this ground, we object to the dreadful dead-body scene in 'the Veiled Prophet,' at page 26., and to the allusion to it afterward:

> 'Instead of scents and balms, for thee and me
> Rose the rich steams of sweet mortality.'
>
> "*Quodcunque ostendis mihi* SIC," &c.

The pictures in the Prophet's apartments excite a different sensation: but we question whether by the change we gain as much in taste as we lose in more elevated qualities. The execution of the scene is, as usual, highly meritorious.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. VIII. *On the Supply of Employment and Subsistence for the Labouring Classes,* in Fisheries, Manufactures, and the Cultivation of Waste Lands; with Remarks on the Operation of the Salt Duties, and a Proposal for their Repeal. Addressed to the Right Hon. Nicholas Vansittart. By Sir Thomas Bernard, Bart. 8vo. pp. 72. 3s. Murray. 1817.

It is well known to our readers that this worthy Baronet has laboured for many years in the cause of the humbler orders; and he now comes forwards with redoubled diligence in this season of their distress. The object of his pamphlet is of the highest interest: but we cannot help thinking that it might have been more definitely expressed by such a title as "The Effects of a Repeal of the Salt Duties in extending productive Industry, affording Labour for the Poor, and providing fresh Sources of Revenue." He agrees with Lord Erskine* in forming a high estimate of the importance of this commodity; observing that no substance is more valuable or more generally applicable to use than common salt; and that every acquisition and every step which we make in chemical knowlege discover new benefits that may be derived from it. Lime has been of the greatest advantage to our agriculture in the course of the last half century, yet lime is neither so cheap nor so powerful, nor yet so universal, a manure as salt. Different soils require different proportions: but it may be laid down as a general rule, that not less than ten loads of lime are required to manure an acre of land, for which a single bushel of salt would be sufficient. Where a failure has taken place in applying salt as a manure, it has generally proceeded from an excess in the quantity; such, at least, was the case before the extraordinary increase of duty during the last war, which carried the price of salt to 30l. a ton, of which the prime cost is only 16s. This enormous addition, and the official difficulties attendant on the collection of the tax, have entirely prevented the application of salt to various purposes; such as the use of the refuse for manure, the mixing of common salt with hay, and its distribution in small quantities for the food of sheep, although it is recognized as an effectual preventive of the rot and other complaints.

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* See "Armata;" or the M. Rev. for March last.

The great means of obtaining a stock of salt, when admitted to general use, would be neither from sea-water nor from rock-salt, but from *brine springs*; a most plentiful and copious source of supply, the brine of Cheshire yielding on an average 25 per cent., or one gallon of solid salt from four gallons of liquid: whereas common sea-water does not yield above one in 28. England is therefore almost as superior to other countries in salt as in coal; and it is no exaggeration to say that the public benefits arising from the unrestrained use of the former would not be inferior to the immense advantages so long derived from the latter. These benefits might be realized without any fanciful projects, any tedious or expensive undertakings; they would require nothing but a recurrence to the natural course of things, and the removal of a burden imposed in a season when we were *in extremis*. The relief arising from establishing work-houses on a new plan, from digging canals, and laying out roads and rail-ways, is not uniformly certain, and is at all events remote: but the removal of the salt-duties would open a field which would at once be occupied by individuals for their own sake. What more would be demanded by our ship-owners and our seamen, in order to extend our fisheries all along the coast, particularly in the neighbourhood of the metropolis; where the demand is so large, and where the narrowness of the sea leads in certain seasons to an extraordinary accumulation of fish? The Kentish seamen (says Sir Thomas) might in October and November take herrings in a quantity more than double the average catch of our great cod-fishery at Newfoundland; and the case would be the same with regard to the shoals of mackarel in May, June, and July; affording thus a most important addition to our means of accomplishing two main points, — the employment of our sailors and the maintenance of our poor. At present, our advantages are confined to temporary supplies of fresh fish at particular seasons; and it is almost impracticable to salt them for a winter-store, on account of the custom-house difficulties in obtaining a remission of duty.

It is a remarkable fact that salt, which, after all our restrictions at home, we sell *duty free* to foreigners, is used largely by the American farmers; though, by the time at which it reaches them, it costs not less than half a crown a bushel. When applied as a manure, it has, in addition to other advantages, great efficacy in reducing weeds and dried herbage into a putrid and oily mass.* Even in our manufactures, the unrestricted use of salt would be productive of the most extensive benefit. Three tons of salt suffice to make one ton of mineral alkali, an important ingredient in soap: but, the duty having entirely stopped this manufacture, our soap-boilers have been obliged to have recourse to Spain for barilla, and frequently to substitute inferior materials. Mineral alkali is an article of the most extensive application, and, with the enterprize and capital of our manufacturers, would set at work so many new branches as to occupy several thousands of labourers; perhaps to make up to the revenue, by a new and moderate tax on the alkali, a considerable part of that which might be relinquished on the salt. *Sal-ammoniac* has hitherto been imported at a heavy expence; and it was in vain that our chemists lately discovered a process for making it both cheaper and better from common salt, because the excise stept in and insisted on levying the full duty. *Magnesia* and *Glauber's Salts* are open to the same observations: both might be procured in great quantities by taking off the duty on salt; and both might be made the objects of a new tax in their manufactured state. A farther indemnity to the revenue might, in all probability, be obtained by a tax on the export of salt, founded on the same principle as our tax on the export of coal; a principle which, if in some measure questionable, is certainly less injurious than the present rule of allowing to foreigners that which we deny to our countrymen.

We have thus made it apparent that the object of the worthy Baronet is of the highest importance, and that he does not advise the repeal of one species of duty without suggesting an alternative. Whatever difference of opinion may exist as to the new taxes, proposed by way of commutation, no person can doubt that the public would gain largely by the relinquishment of the present duties, both in the general prosperity of the lower orders and more directly in the reduction of family expences. 'The extent of this reduction,' says Sir T. B., 'is greater than I could have conceived until I made inquiry about the quantity of salt used in my own family and in some others.' If to all these arguments we add the respect due to the large proportion of the House of Commons that voted for the repeal a few months ago, when the question came before them, we cannot but hope that the subject will soon engage the serious attention of government.

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* It is even worth while to advert to the salutary effects of salt in scrofulous and other complaints, by enabling the poor to make use of artificial salt-baths, when they cannot afford the expence of a distant journey, or the inconvenience attendant on leaving their business.

Art. IX. *Symbolic Illustrations of the History of England,* from the Roman Invasion to the present Time: accompanied with a Narrative of the Principal Events. Designed more particularly for the Instruction of Young Persons. By Mary Ann Rundall, of Bath, Author of the Grammar of Sacred History. 4to. pp. 645. 2l. 2s. Boards. Black and Co.

The size and price of this volume, and the sex of its author, are so many calls on our attention to its contents. We regret, however, the necessity of noticing it, because both of the former considerations are serious grounds of complaint, and to the latter we have been accustomed to pay such habitual deference that we would gladly avoid any expression which might seem to compromise our gallantry and respect. We must, however, put ourselves in the same situation with a judge who administers the law, and, shutting our eyes on the person, must consider only the facts.

Although the title-page informs us that this work is 'designed more particularly for the use of young persons,' we must acknowlege that even we, as old critics, found no little difficulty in comprehending the mode by which the instruction is to be conveyed; and even now we doubt whether we have been successful in our endeavours. The preface commences with an assertion in which we cannot concur; viz. 'that the history of England is considered by youth less amusing than any other which is usually put into their hands.' In order to shew that this does not originate in the want of interesting events, but in the want of sufficiently celebrating them, the author asks a few such questions as these: 'If Cincinnatus was taken from the plough, to fill the highest dignities in Rome, were not Cranmer and Wolsey raised from the meanest situations to fill the highest offices in church and state?' — and — 'If a Codrus devoted himself for the safety of his country, is the generous valour of British seamen less glorious, who at the memorable siege of Gibraltar plunged amidst a sea of fire to save the lives of their enemies at the hazard of their own?' — comparisons in which we do not see an adequate resemblance. Mrs. R. then proceeds to account for the fact thus assumed, by stating that 'the paintings that illustrate our own history' are very few when 'compared with those of antiquity,' and that 'the remembrance of every memorable action of old was perpetuated by temples and triumphal arches:'—thus taking it for granted that these young persons, who are engaged in the study of the rudiments of history, must be perfectly well acquainted with the pictures of the antient masters, and with the ruinous records of the heroes of old. The next sentence in the preface contains all the explanation that is given of the method proposed.

> 'Objects that are SEEN make a more lasting impression on the mind than the mere RECITAL of facts: it has therefore been my aim in the composition of the symbols or hieroglyphics, to embody, as it were, the most striking incidents recorded in the annals of our country: and, as the ingenuity and penetration of the student is [are] exercised in discovering the meaning of the symbolical representation, the fact itself, with all its connecting associations, becomes more forcibly impressed upon the memory.'

Thus, then, according to this train of argument, the impression which has been produced with regard to antient history by 'poetry, painting, and sculpture,' is to be effected in English history by 'symbols and hieroglyphics.' Let us see how this is to be accomplished.

In the advertisement is 'a Key to the Symbols,' which, after having stated that 'a nation collectively is represented by a small flag on which is depicted a symbolic figure,' such as a lion for the English, a thistle for the Scotch, and a leek for the Welsh, contains among others the following explanations:—'The Roman standard is the eagle, with S.P.Q.R. The Saxons are represented by the old Saxon letter 𝔖 on a white ground. The Danes by a 𝔇 on a field *azure.* The Normans by an 𝔑 on a field *vert:*' so that the boyish student must have a little knowlege of heraldry also, as these symbols are not coloured.

> 'The English individual is designated by an *upright line,* surmounted with an oak leaf: if a *diagonal line* crosses it, it is a knight or noble. The triple lines are females. Kings and queens are distinguished by crowns. Princes and princesses have a small *crescent reversed* on the top of a *perpendicular line.* An upright line with a *death's-head* is an assassin.'

The method being thus *simply* detailed, we proceed to the work itself. It consists of 40 plates, each of which is divided into compartments, (generally about nine in number,) and in each compartment is a symbolic representation of an insulated fact in the history of England. The letter-press is arranged in sections, each section recording a particular fact, the title of which is placed at its head, with a reference to the figure representing the subject in the preceding plates; and in many instances an 'explanation' of the symbols is prefixed. In order to shew the effect of all this, we will take at random one of the figures. In the reign of Richard II. is a section intitled 'Queen Anne's intercession for Burley:' a subject, by the way, scarcely interesting enough to justify the labour of decyphering an hieroglyphic. The diagram to which it refers is headed 1388, and consists of two figures; one is 'an upright line surmounted with an oak-leaf,' — something like the mast of a ship, — 'crossed by a diagonal line,' which may be compared to one of the yards across the mast; — the other is 'a triple line,' bent into a sort of obtuse angle, and surmounted by a crown; — resembling in some degree a broken flag-staff with the ropes attached to it. The explanation is, 'Anne, Queen of Richard II. pleading before the Duke of Gloucester for the life of Sir Simon Burley.' — The questions naturally arise, how two lines — the one upright and the other bent — can by any possibility designate in an intelligible manner an historical fact; and how the upright line is to be recognized by the most ingenious pupil as the Duke of Gloucester, any more than another line in a similar position, of which there are several hundreds: or how the triple line can be known for the queen of Richard II., rather than for the Queen Elgiva, who in the 6th figure of plate 2. is represented in exactly the same form? We confess that we are puzzled in seeking the advantage possessed by these symbols, compared with the more natural and pleasing mode of representing events in pictures; and in ascertaining why this two-guinea-book is to be preferred to the more interesting and useful tract of Mrs. Trimmer, price about two shillings.

The suggestion of the idea of this work is attributed to Mr. Von Feinagle, who delivered some years ago a series of lectures on Mnemonics, of which an unauthorized and imperfect account was noticed in our Review for May 1813: but surely a wide difference exists between learning, by such means as are here described, events of which the pupil is at first wholly ignorant, and fixing in the memory the date of facts which are supposed to be already known. The system of the Professor, moreover, was not intended to convey the instruction, but to methodize and fix that knowlege which had been already acquired.

Nevertheless, this lady deserves some praise for the patience which she has evinced in the compilation of this work; though it is unfortunately a virtue which her readers will be required to practise in perusing it. We would advise her, when she undertakes another book for the education of 'young persons,' to publish it in a shape that will not burthen their hands, and at a price which will not lighten their pockets.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR JUNE, 1817.

EDUCATION.

Art. 10. *The Young Travellers;* or a Visit to the Grandmother. Containing, with a Variety of incidental Topics, a Sketch of the Elements of Zoology, Botany, Mineralogy, and other Branches of Natural History. By a Lady. Second Edition. 12mo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Godwin and Co. 1816.

As this is a very amusing and instructive book, it both deserved and required the addition of a few plain engravings to illustrate the descriptions of objects of natural history. We must add that, as the system of Linné seems to have been followed in most of these descriptions, the author errs in speaking of the *Pinna Marina* and other muscles as *fish*, because Linné classes them among *worms*.

Art. 11. *Geography, in easy Dialogues for Children.* By a Lady. Small 12mo. 1s. Hailes. 1816.

While we may commend this little volume as making the rudiments of geography intelligible and amusing, we must notice one or two trifling errors. In p. 5. 'Mama' is made to say, 'You will find the British ocean and the Atlantic ocean *both in Europe*,' instead of "in the map of Europe;"—and at p. 47. is the following inaccurate sentence: 'In India, the few *forests* which there are *contains* some lions and bears.'

Art. 12. *The Little Warbler of the Cottage, and her Dog Constant.* By a Lover of Children. Small 12mo. 1s. Harris. 1816.

It may be objected that this whole tale is too romantic; and, among other censurable incidents, we observe that Clara's acquaintance with the 'Little Warbler' is obtained through an act of disobedience; thus making the consequences of her misbehaviour highly agreeable to her.

Art. 13. *The History of England,* in easy Dialogues, for young Children. By a Lady. Small 12mo. 1s. 6d. sewed. Hailes. 1816.

Some of the most prominent circumstances in the English history are here related; and the succession of the different families, which children are usually puzzled to remember, is clearly explained.

Art. 14. *The Oracle,* or the Friend of Youth. 12mo. 2s. Half-bound. Darton and Co. 1816.

We can recommend this book only to such young readers as are not in possession of an earlier work called, "The Juvenile Spectator," since this appears to be merely an abridged imitation of "Mrs. Argus's" lucubrations.

Art. 15. *Elements of Universal Geography, Antient and Modern,* &c. &c. By A. Picquot. Second Edition, greatly enlarged, and brought down to the Peace of Paris. 1815. 12mo. 5s. bound. Lackington and Co. 1817.

A compendious and useful work, in which the account of antient geography will be the more acceptable from the subject not being usually introduced into elementary books of this kind.

Art. 16. *The first Step to the French Tongue,* designed as an easy Introduction to, and consisting entirely of the Verbs; with Practical Exercises. By A. Picquot, Author of an Abridgement of Levizac's Grammar, &c. small 12mo. pp. 81. Law and Whittaker. 1817.

This collection of the French verbs is copious, and sufficiently well arranged to give the learner a competent knowlege of them.

Art. 17. *Stories for Children,* selected from the History of England, from the Conquest to the Revolution. Small 12mo. pp. 186. Murray. 1816.

Praise is due to the simplicity with which these stories are related; and they will make the history of England intelligible and interesting to very young children, who might be wearied and perplexed by more elaborate volumes.

HISTORY.

Art. 18. *Annals of the Reign of King George the Third;* from its Commencement in the Year 1760, to the General Peace in the Year 1815. By John Aikin, M.D. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 982. 1l. 5s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1816.

We have often had occasion to regret that the talents of men capable of original composition are, from the inadequate recompence of literary labour, confined to undertakings that require qualities of no higher stamp than those which are exercised in selecting, arranging, and condensing. Of this nature is the work before us, which proceeds from the pen of one of our most respected veterans in literature, who, from his earliest essays, indicated a capacity for its higher and more difficult departments. Still, if we must pronounce that this compilation is unsuitable to the talents of the writer, we have pleasure in recognizing in it that candour and modesty which pervade his former publications. 'The volumes,' says Dr. Aikin, 'have no other pretension than that of a summary of the principal events of the present reign. My objects in point of composition have been perspicuity and strict impartiality, exhibited in the absence of every kind of colouring that might favour the purposes of *party.*' Acting on this plan, Dr. A. has compressed a surprizing extent of matter into a very moderate compass, confining himself in general to a brief statement of facts, and entering very rarely into the field of political conjecture. Each year has its separate chapter, and each volume opens with a very clear and comprehensive table of contents: but we cannot help regretting that an index was not added, in a case in which the variety of the information is so great, and the thread of the narrative is often suspended on account of a strict adherence to chronological order.

The first volume comprizes thirty-four years, viz. from 1760 to 1794, and the second contains the still more important transactions of the twenty-one years that elapsed from 1794 to 1815. It is needless to lay before our readers extracts from a work which treats of events so fresh in the memory of most of them, and which seldom if ever aims at arresting their attention by novelty as to facts or brilliancy of style. It is sufficient to say that the language is clear and unassuming, and that the statements of circumstances and transactions are, in general, correct. When the case happens to be otherwise, it is evidently owing not to prejudice and still less to intention on the part of the writer, but to some accidental defect in his materials, or to the haste with which publications for a temporary purpose are too frequently prepared. It is thus only that we can explain a number of typographical errors, such as (vol. i. p. 302.) Herbert for Hebert; the 17th for 18th of March (1793) as the date of the battle of Neerwinden; the 28th for the 29th of July (1794) as the date of the fall of Robespierre; and, which is more extraordinary than any, the death of George II. (vol. i. p. 1.) in the 24th instead of the 34th year of his reign. These blemishes, however, will soon receive the indulgence of the reader, when he turns to any particular passage where the capacity or the impartiality of the writer is put to the test; such, for example, as that much disputed point, the interior state of France in the spring of 1815, at the date of Bonaparte's return from Elba. We have had opportunities of ascertaining, from the most satisfactory sources, the nature of the public feeling at the time in question, and nothing can be more clear and correct than Dr. A.'s observations on the subject. They are divested of all that high colouring which is so lavishly brought forwards by writers who will attribute that extraordinary change to an extraordinary cause; and who can explain it no otherwise than by supposing some egregious mismanagement on the part of the Bourbons, and the existence of a grand conspiracy in favour of Bonaparte.— Many other parts of the book are marked by equal claims to our attention; and we conclude our short report by extracting a few sentences explanatory of the author's reasons for avoiding those conjectures relative to the private history of cabinets, of which many of his literary brethren are so much enamoured.

'Were it possible to attain more certainty with respect to such topics than can come within the reach of a private person, what, in general, would be gained, except a nearer insight into a drama of life representing the play of ordinary motives upon ordinary minds

— a view of the secondary movements of a machine, the main springs of which are acting according to known and obvious laws? In reality, the great series of human affairs is directed by a chain of causes and effects of much superior potency to the efforts of individuals in any station, who for the most part are rather the subjects, than the rulers of events. While men in continued succession, under a variety of characters, probably at all times existing in nearly equal proportions, are pursuing a course influenced by their passions and interests, changes are operating in the large masses of mankind, the result of combinations of circumstances which the flux of ages has been requisite to produce. It is from the observation of these, and not from an acquaintance with court-intrigues and party-manœuvres, that the true philosophy of history is to be deduced; and an impartial record of leading facts is the grand desideratum for obtaining this important addition to human wisdom.'

Art. 19. *The History of the Waldenses:* connected with a Sketch of the Christian Church from the Birth of it to the Eighteenth Century. By William Jones. The Second Edition, corrected and greatly enlarged. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 4s. Boards. Gale and Fenner, &c.

In our lxxivth volume, p. 191., we recommended to our readers the interesting narrative, which Mr. Jones had drawn up, of a people who resisted the corruptions of the Church of Rome at a period whence its own power, and the deep ignorance into which Europe had sunken, might seem to have promised them an universal and everlasting triumph over the simple truths of the gospel. We are glad to perceive that he has been enabled, by the sale of his first edition, to remove some of its imperfections; especially by enlarging very considerably the account of the Waldenses, which now occupies the whole of the second volume. The interest which has been excited in this kingdom by the revival of persecution against the Protestants of the South of France, since the second return of the Bourbons, will draw a lively attention to the narrative of former outrages on the rights of conscience of which the same countries were the scene; and to the manly remonstrances on behalf of the sufferers, which were conceived by the mind of Cromwell and embodied by the pen of Milton.

Mr. Jones's title is, we think, scarcely a fair one. In a 'History of the Waldenses connected with a Sketch of the Christian Church from the Birth of Christ to the 18th Century,' would any person anticipate that general ecclesiastical history would occupy one-half of the work? Unity of subject is an excellence which should be cultivated by the historian, not less than by the dramatist or the epic poet. The first volume, which is intended to shew that dissidents from the Catholic Church, and not popes and councils, have preserved the tradition of pure Christian doctrine, is properly a distinct work from the History of the Waldenses in the second. To begin this history at the birth of Christ is like taking up the tale of Troy *ab ovo Tyndaridarum.*

RELIGIOUS.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 20. *The Christian's Manual,* compiled from the Enchiridion Militis Christiani of Erasmus, with copious Scripture-Notes, &c. &c. By Philip Wyatt Crowther, Esq. For the Benefit of the City of London Auxiliary National Schools. 8vo. pp. 280. 8s. Boards. Rivingtons, &c.

Erasmus wrote his Manual of a Christian Soldier, in order to oppose a rational and practical system of morals to the superstitious practices in which the religious of his day made piety to consist. It is therefore not wonderful that it should never have been a favourite with enthusiasts and ascetics. Ignatius Loyola declared that he found his devotion cooled by reading it; on which Jortin observes, " that the judgment of Loyola is altogether worthy of him; and every fanatic in the world, if he were to peruse this treatise of Erasmus, would be of the very same opinion; and would want something more pathetic and savoury, something with more unction and less morality and common sense." (Life of Erasmus, i. 22.) We dare not venture to assure Mr. Crowther that the present age is so free from this spirit, that he will be in no danger of hearing the same charge brought against his work. Some despise practical ethics because their own taste requires the more stimulating diet of religious controversy, and some because this art affords little opportunity for those flights of rapturous feeling to which they confine the name of religion.

Mr. C. has prefixed a sketch of that part of the life of Erasmus which was spent in England, collected from the numerous authors who have directly or incidentally written concerning his life. We wish that, instead of a series of extracts which often want the *callida junctura* that would lead the reader smoothly on, he had melted down his materials into a continued narrative; in doing which, no candid critic would have charged him with a desire to appropriate undeserved honour to himself. His language respecting the literary merit of his work is so unassuming, and his object is so benevolent, that we are unwilling to descend to literary criticism: but we cannot help recommending it to him, if he should ever pursue a similar plan with respect to any other work of practical morality, to be rather more sparing of his supplementary matter. Excellent as the authors are from whom this portion is derived, the text of Erasmus is sometimes rather incumbered than illustrated by Mr. C.'s extracts.

POLITICS.

Art. 21. *A Letter on the Distresses of the Country;* addressed to His Royal Highness the Duke of Kent, in consequence of his Motion respecting " the Revulsion of Trade and our sudden Transition from a System of extensive War to a State of Peace;" in which the supposed Influence of our Debt and Taxes upon our foreign Trade is investigated. By John Ashton Yates. 2d Edition. 8vo. pp. 230. 5s. Longman and Co.

Mr. Yates begins by informing the public that his time is closely occupied in business, and that he has little leisure for the avocations of an author: yet he has contrived in this pamphlet, we must be permitted to say, to commit an excess both in diffuseness of style and in multiplicity of topics. It is not enough that he takes up such subjects as the poor-laws and parliamentary reform, (each tolerably comprehensive,) but he also diverges (p. 164.) into the general question of morals, and laments in a pathetic strain 'the prevalence of vice in all ranks and conditions of society.' Mr. Yates is also unequal to himself; adopting at one time very sound and moderate notions, and being led away at another by a string of common yet often refuted prejudices. Of the former, is the opinion (p. 52.) that it would be folly to attempt any permanent increase of our paper-currency; that it would be impolitic (p. 68.) to augment the bounty on the export of corn; and that (p. 78.) the effect of the long-continued war has been to substitute among merchants a dangerous spirit of adventure for patient industry and frugality. To the same class belongs the judicious idea that (p. 124.) the great commerce of every state consists in its inland-exchanges; that the assertions so boldly made by our men in office, in March 1813, about the operation of our sinking-fund, were gross misrepresentations; and that, in all our attempts to relieve the existing distress, we should confine the people to those employments for which our country is more particularly fitted by its soil, its climate, and the national habits. After having been gratified with such observations as these, we little expected to find Mr. Yates adopting (p. 9.) the notion that the late war gave us a monopoly of the trade of the world; and (p. 29.) that Great Britain had 'become in 1812 the grand emporium of the commerce of the Atlantic.' If he will look back to the official documents of that year, he will soon discover that our manufacturers were plunged in the deepest distress; and that Lord Liverpool found it necessary to adopt, immediately on coming into office, a most important departure from the policy of his predecessors, by the repeal of the Orders in Council; yet these Orders must be the measure which Mr. Yates had in contemplation, when expatiating on our fortunate accumulation of the Atlantic commerce. We might forgive him an error on so disputed a point: but what are we to think of his grave argument (pp. 167, 168.) that our national industry is owing not so much to our religion, our liberty, and the security of our property, as to the nature of our climate; — forgetting that he has only to cast his eye over a long list of similar temperatures, to find himself in the regions of indolence and barbarism?

After such repeated examples of error, Mr. Yates must excuse us if we decline to take a detailed notice of his general views, and restrict our chief attention to those particular statements which his opportunities as a mercantile man have enabled him to collect. In p. 133. he communicates the notable fact that muslins, and other light cotton-goods manufactured by our machinery, can be sold in India on cheaper terms than they can be provided by manual labour in that country, though the weavers work at the trifling wages of 2d. or 3d. a day. Mr. Y. recapitulates likewise an act of parliament of considerable interest at the present moment, viz. Mr. Pelham's act of 1749 for reducing the rate of interest from 4 to 3½, and eventually to 3 per cent.; the last, however, to take place only eight years afterward: — a qualification to which we may in a great measure ascribe the general adoption of that otherwise unpalatable arrangement by the stock-holders of the day. The most gratifying passage in this tract, however, is a report in the Appendix (p. 13.) on the health and morals of the manufacturers employed at the cotton-works in the parish of Duffield in Derbyshire; where, among so mixed a body as 1500 persons, we find that the non-attendance from sickness has been only six hours yearly for each on an average, although the number of working-hours is above eleven daily. The size of the rooms is ample, and fresh air may be transmitted into them constantly at the rate of not less than 150 gallons per minute for each person; the consequence of which is that the complexion of the manufacturer, instead of manifesting the paleness of most sedentary persons, has much of the freshness of the labourer in the open air. Schools also are provided for the children, and none are allowed to labour under the age of nine. Before the establishment of these works, the children were chiefly maintained by begging, and the grown-up persons were notorious for idle habits; at present, all is industry, decorous behaviour, and regular attendance on public worship.

Mr. Yates has given several other documents in his Appendix, and he might without impropriety have enlarged the number; the habits of gentlemen in his situation being much more favourable to the collection of documents as materials, than to the formation of general conclusions.

Art. 22. *On the present State of Public Affairs.* 8vo. pp. 104. 4s. Murray. 1817.

We have here, on the whole, a sprightly performance; containing in more passages than one an item of important information, but put together without any arrangement, and even without a clear statement of the object of the writer. He begins, like many of his brethren, by attributing our embarrassments to the sudden transition from war to peace, and to the absence of the extraordinary stimulus attendant on the former. 'A man,' (he says, p. 8.) 'who, long accustomed to intemperance, should on a sudden abstain from all strong drink, may for a time, and until his constitution has adapted itself to the change of living, undergo much real suffering; the absence of all stimulus, occasioned by his return to sobriety, will be the cause of this depression and debility; but because we affirm this, we are not therefore prepared to contend that he ought to return to a course of drunkenness as a restorative.'

From this observation on our commercial situation, the author passes to the often-discussed topic of parliamentary reform, and attempts to enliven this beaten track by digressions (p. 33.) about two of its most ill-fated supporters, Lord Cochrane and Mr. Cobbet. We cannot, however, congratulate him either on the interest or the novelty of his remarks, though he returns repeatedly to the charge, and declares himself decidedly adverse to the views of the reformists. In fact, he not only objects to any change at present, but he has no very flattering ideas of the possibility of such ameliorations at a future and even a remote period. We find somewhat more of novelty in the passage appropriated (p. 45. *et seq.*) to the state of the poor, and the means of alleviating their sufferings: but the only parts of the pamphlet, that are intitled to the attention of our readers, are the observations relating to public offices and the feelings of those who are at their head. Of these we have a specimen in the account (p. 4.) of the very serious mortifications attendant on ministerial responsibility in such times as the present, and the refutation (pp. 83. 90.) of several exaggerated allegations with regard to the amount of sinecures. The author then proceeds to shew that the total of government-sinecures scarcely exceeds 100,000l. a-year; a charge which may be deemed of little importance as to the amount of the money, but which is still of first-rate consequence as affording an illegitimate source of influence to the executive power.

Art. 23. *The true State of the British Nation as to Trade, Commerce, &c. clearly pourtrayed;* and new, eligible, and extraordinary Plans proposed; whereby the whole of the National Debt may be speedily liquidated, without throwing any additional Burden on the Community, or injuring the Public Creditors; which of course would cause the Removal or happy Cessation of nearly the whole of the Taxes, Duties, Excise, &c. and at the same Time create a plentiful Circulation of Money, and a successful Chance of Competition in Foreign Markets: consequently, the Revival of our Trade and Commerce, with an Abundance of Employment for our increasing Population, and a complete Renovation of our Finances. By J. H. Reddell, Esq. 8vo. pp. 126. Stockdale, &c.

After this very copious title-page, Mr. Reddell commences by introducing himself to the public as an observer of the progress of the mechanic arts for nearly half a century, and then makes the mortifying admission that all his contributions to their improvement have been attended with very little emolument to himself. This will scarcely surprize our readers, when they are informed that this gentleman has possessed such an active *mobilité d'esprit* as to invent at one moment a steam-vessel, at another a new method of making nails, and soon afterward an improved plan for lighting theatres, government-offices, and public buildings in general. He now obligingly offers the public, in its day of trouble, a specimen of his happy talent of originality, and proposes one of the boldest measures that have yet occurred to any of our kind monitors: — no other, in short, than an act of parliament to reduce the price of all merchandise and all property, not *by* one-fourth, but *to* one-fourth of its present amount; — all for the purpose of enabling us to manufacture goods at a cheaper rate than our neighbours, and to drive every competitor before us in the foreign market. The national debt is mercilessly destined to this tremendous sacrifice, and ought (according to Mr. R.) from this day forwards to be brought within the limit of 200,000,000l. sterling: the result of all which would be to get rid of those most troublesome things, "taxes," the whole *without causing any material suffering to his Majesty's subjects.* What a pity that Mr. R. did not hold a confidential place among the *hommes à vastes projets* of the French Revolution, who meditated nothing less than "uniting all Europe into one family," and who accused their political opponents of the nefarious project of "undermining the *Seine!*"

Art. 24. *A Remedy for the late Bad Harvest.* 8vo. 6d. Richardson. 1817.

This little tract contains some good advice, conveyed in a very simple and unassuming form; the author being extremely anxious to remind us of the uncertainty of the seasons, and to render us economical in our consumption of bread, not only at a moment of emergency, but habitually and throughout the year. The upper classes ought, in his opinion, to have renounced, during the last winter, the use of fine wheaten bread, in the hope of having their example followed by the great mass of consumers. Another and a still more important source of economy consists in abstaining from the use of new bread; that is, in never cutting a loaf sooner than twenty-four hours after it is baked. Neither of these rules has been observed; and the writer is obliged to console himself with the very general and spirited use that has been made of his next recommendation, viz. that of availing ourselves of the comparative cheapness of animal food by cooking it for the poor in the shape of soup. In the present aspect of affairs, it seems likely that we shall be obliged to continue this expedient for some time; and fortunate it is that the cheapest parts of the meat will serve for this purpose as well as the dearest, the chief points being to make a judicious choice of vegetables and other ingredients.—We pass over the minor suggestions of this author, not that we dissent from them, but because such matters seem of little importance when compared with his other and more essential recommendations.

Art. 25. *On the present Distress of the Country, and suitable Remedies.* By William Harris, Minister of the Congregational Church, Wallingford, Berks; Author of "Hints on Toleration," and of "An Enquiry into the Toleration Act." 8vo. pp. 121. 3s. 6d. Maxwell.

If not possessed of much depth or novelty, this pamphlet has the benefit of more clearness and arrangement than the majority of transient publications; the writer dividing his arguments very carefully into a series of sections, and beginning by exhibiting them in a distinct table of contents. One of his principal topics of regret is the recent extent of emigration; which is productive, at a moderate computation, of an annual drain of four millions sterling, even if we limit the number of British subjects on the Continent to 40,000, and their average expence to 100l. each.

The loss to our country does not indeed amount to the extent in question, because these persons would equally draw the money were they living at home: but it would in that case be circulated and expended among our own tradesmen, thus affording to England, instead of the Continent, all the profit arising from the diffusion of so large a sum. To make the matter worse, emigration is fashionable among a class of our countrymen whose memory, says Mr. Harris, is so very treacherous as to 'leave their bills at home unpaid for the last two, three, or four years.' Another topic, on which Mr. H. expatiates with great truth and energy, is the ridiculous expence of living which has so long been general among all ranks; an error in which it would be difficult to say whether the farmer, the merchant, or the nobleman has gone the greatest lengths. Servants throw away the whole and sometimes more than the whole of their yearly wages on dress; tradesmen and manufacturers live too frequently on the capital of their creditors; while landholders have been expending, or even exceeding, the high rents of a season of war, with as much confidence as if war had been to last for ever. With equal justice, Mr. H. reprobates that rage for speculation which has infected not only the mercantile but other classes; and he concludes by pressing the necessity of a general subscription, on a large scale, to make a fund for providing work for the poor. He gives (p. 105.) a very good outline of the nature of the undertakings to be contemplated by the managers of such funds; and, since he published his pamphlet, he has had the satisfaction of seeing government come forwards with pecuniary means, while local committees are carrying their ideas into execution in different parts of the country.

Another branch of Mr. H.'s remedial plans, and on which he expatiates at great length, is a general inclosure-bill; — a bill which should authorize at once the commencement of cultivation on every common in the kingdom, (where the enterprise might be deemed likely to answer,) without exposing the undertaker, to the expence of a special act for every particular inclosure. This question has been repeatedly canvassed, and various objections to it have been made; partly on the plea of preserving to the poor the benefit arising from their access to extensive commons, and more from the dread that such enlarged cultivation would reduce the prices of corn below a remunerating standard. The latter we consider as chimerical, the expence of bringing waste land into a state of tillage being too serious to be lightly incurred; and, with reference to the poor, it is one argument to say that they are no where more uncomfortable than in the neighbourhood of commons, Were we to favour a general inclosure-act, it would be less from a notion of such a measure leading, under present circumstances, to extended cultivation, than from the strength of the general rule that "unrestrained freedom ought to be given to industry in all directions." It is a remarkable fact that the extent of waste land was in 1808 above twenty-two millions of acres; and it may still be set down, after all the improvements of the last ten years, at sixteen or seventeen millions.

Art. 26. *Exposition of one principal Cause of the National Distress,* particularly in manufacturing Districts; with some Suggestions for its Removal. 8vo. pp. 44. 1s. 6d. Darton and Co. 1817.

A vague and desultory performance, professing by its title to aim at something specific, but containing a variety of miscellaneous or rather extraneous matter, and even attempting to revive a number of antiquated prejudices. What shall we say of a writer who sees no other remedy for the relief of the poor than an immediate advance in the price of labour, and who considers that as an evil hour in which machinery was introduced into our domestic manufactures?

Art. 27. *A Letter to the Right Hon. Lord Rolle, on the present Distresses of the Country.* By John Edye. 8vo. pp. 24. Longman and Co. 1817.

This pamphlet has scarcely any advantage over the foregoing, the writers being much on a par with regard to their stock of political knowlege, and as to the expediency of the means which they recommend for the relief of the lower orders. Mr. Edye points his chief antipathy at the fund-holder, and conceives himself to be very eloquent when he gives the reins to his fancy, and expatiates on the inefficacy of paper-money to accomplish the extraordinary exertions by which, as our ministers say, "we effected the deliverance of Europe." 'What is our national debt? nothing but a few rags. Can paper fight? Can these modern-trained bands of the Bank of England shoulder a musket, storm a breach, or fire a cannon?' Yet Mr. Edye does not carry his unkindness so far as to wish (p. 19.) for a national bankruptcy; he is generous enough to propose to leave the fund-holder one part of his property, if he will relinquish the other. He does not condescend to specify the *quantum* of the deduction, but it must be very considerable indeed, if we are to judge from the following significant admonition: 'I would recommend him, then, to descend from that aerial height, where he can no longer sustain himself, and where he can no longer be sustained, with the same sincerity that I would give that advice to one of my children, whom I saw on the topmost bough of a tree, which I knew to be incapable of supporting him. The fall of the giddy child of fortune in the one case (unless he take timely warning) is as inevitable as that of the sportive child of nature in the other.'

Art. 28. *Correspondence of the Duke of Otranto with the Duke of Wellington, Letter I.* Dresden, Jan. 1. 1816. 8vo. 5s. sewed. Colburn.

We take notice of this 'Correspondence' merely to record our belief that the whole is a fabrication of a Parisian or London bookmaker, the reflections being frequently common-place, and the style inflated and unnatural. If it be worth while to settle the question, to which side of the Channel we are to give the credit of the invention, the Gallicisms are so frequent that they leave little reason to doubt the propriety of assigning the whole to our neighbours. Most readers will be of such an opinion, when informed that this epistle begins by invoking the authority of Solon, and ends with the elegant phrase, 'Ill is almost always executed under hallowed pretexts.'

Art. 29. *The Monarchy according to the Charter.* By the Viscount de Chateaubriand, Peer of France, Minister of State, Chevalier of the Royal and Military Order of St. Louis, Member of the Royal Institute of France. 8vo. pp. 268. 7s. 6d. Boards. Murray.

Another political effusion from the pen of this indefatigable writer! — a writer, too, who complains that the press is in shackles! — We have often occasion to regret the want of method and subdivision in the temporary productions of the day: but M. de C. is determined that no reviewer shall have to censure him on that ground: for the present volume, a thin octavo, is divided into ninety-two chapters, a fresh title being adopted not only at every change of subject, but at almost every *nuance* in the discussion. The topics treated in this series of essays are very multifarious; some relating to the royal prerogative; others to the privileges of the representative body; many to the conduct of the three administrations which have guided the affairs of France since the restoration of the Bourbons; others to the liberty of the press and the state of public feeling in that disunited country, &c. All these matters are discussed with the characteristic boldness of this writer, who is never at a loss for a decisive opinion, and who has no scruple in advocating his present doctrines at the expence of those of his former situation. He maintains, among other things, that the French parliament should have, like ours, the *initiative*, or right of originating public bills; a right which, however natural it may appear to Englishmen, would be productive of very dangerous consequences among an unsettled and credulous people. M. de C. is less objectionable in maintaining (p. 51.) the doctrine, that 'no Committee of the French parliament ought to go the length of proposing a new tax; but that the representative body should confine itself to the question of adopting or rejecting, leaving the task of the original proposition to the finance-minister.' Men in office can scarcely be expected to do justice to a project that is not their own; or to avoid indulging a secret triumph on the failure of a plan introduced without their concurrence.

Other parts of the publication are appropriated to arguments against the revolutionists; who, in the author's opinion, have enjoyed too much of the confidence of the court; and who, he thinks, would still be ready to join in a conspiracy against legitimate monarchy. Nothing makes him, and the French *noblesse* in general, feel so sore as the charge of inaptitude for business, and the assertion that the balance of talents rests with their opponents. It is curious to see M. de C. profess himself very desirous (p. 239.) to plead the cause of moderation, and urging that ministers should be indulgent, tolerant, and humane; while, in the very next page, he mixes with these kind hints certain admonitions of a less friendly, and of an extremely vague description; such as that they should give a preference to 'virtue over vice; that they should not put an honest man at one desk, and a rogue at the next;' with a string of other common-places, which have been re-echoed in France during thirty years, without the people ever becoming aware of the endless perversion that may be made of such undefined language.

This tract is certainly less absurd than some others from the same pen, particularly the Viscount's incomprehensible book on the subject of "Revolutions:" but we can by no means recommend it to the attention of our readers, at least to those among them who prefer deliberate inquiry and sober reasoning to the glitter of bold metaphors and well-rounded periods.

Art. 30. *On the Political Doctrine calculated to unite Parties in France;* by Benjamin de Constant. Translated by Thomas Elde Darby, under the Inspection of the Author. 8vo. pp. 44. 2s. 6d. Ridgway. 1817.

In this little tract, we see the usual features of M. de Constant's composition, vivacity of conception, bold assertion, and abrupt transition: all indicative of a mind of energy, but all failing to produce full and deliberate conviction. We have here in miniature the spirit discovered *en grand* three years ago by his publication (M. R. Vol. lxxv. p. 454.) on the "Folly of Conquest and offensive War;" a publication which, we must remark, was followed so early as the succeeding year by the author's adherence to the government of the very man whom he had thus held up to public indignation. M. de C. cannot refuse to acknowlege this inconsistency, but he would fain urge (p. 23.) a plea of disinterestedness; 'I accepted,' he says, 'a seat in Bonaparte's council, at the time when France was threatened by 1,200,000 foreigners.'—The scope of the present pamphlet is to lay down a kind of creed for both parties; and to adopt the fundamental rule that, whatever might be the excesses of a few individual revolutionists, the great majority of them are men who do honour to their country, and deserve the confidence of their sovereign: 'not, however, to the exclusion of the *noblesse*, a class polished in its manners and rich in its honours.'

M. de Constant inveighs strongly against M. de Chateaubriand; who has made, he says, the rare discovery that the press of France is in shackles at the very time that he is sending forth through its medium a *diatribe* for almost every month; a mode of writing which has the mischievous effect 'of keeping up in the breast of the emigrants, the clergy, and the *noblesse*, that rankling spirit which would otherwise give way to the operation of time and the conciliating policy of Louis XVIII.' On the whole, though commendable in its intention, this pamphlet is unsatisfactory from a want of completeness in its argument and illustrations.

Art. 31. *Further Observations on the State of the Nation; the Means of Employment of Labour; the Sinking Fnnd, and its Application;*

Application; Pauperism; and the Protection requisite to the Landed and Agricultural Interests. By Richard Preston, Esq., M.P. 8vo. pp. 46. 2s. Longman and Co.

We lately took occasion (see our February Review) to animadvert on Mr. Preston's former pamphlet; and to express our regret that a writer, who is certainly not devoid of capacity, had allowed himself to become the vehicle of a series of crude and unsupported allegations. He does not, we are sorry to add, belong to the rare number who take warning by advice; the present pamphlet being in all respects a worthy rival of its predecessor; discussing the most difficult topics with the greatest confidence, and advancing the strongest assertions without any scruple as to the weakness of the arguments by which he supports them. A late traveller, in delineating the behaviour of Frenchmen in a mixed company, says (see our Number for December, p. 373.) that it makes not the smallest difference to them whether the subject under discussion be new to them or not, but that they take a part in the conversation with as much ease, and lay down the law on it with as much confidence, as if it had been long familiar to them. Mr. P., we fear, must plead guilty to a similar charge: for what less than a complete unacquaintance with the very complicated and difficult nature of political economy could induce him to attempt so wide a range of topics, or to treat them in so decisive a tone? To endeavour to follow him through his never-ending labyrinth would be hopeless; and we shall merely observe that, at a time when ministers and the majority of our representatives are aware of the policy of taking off all restriction on the rate of interest, Mr. P. demands (pp. 6. 43.) that the reins of compulsion shall be drawn still tighter; and that, instead of five, the capitalist shall be restricted to four per cent. Again, in the case of the corn-laws, he calls for a repeal of that most important and beneficial clause which permits the warehousing of foreign corn at all seasons; and he sums up with requiring (p. 9.) a permanent duty of not less than twenty shillings per quarter on foreign wheat: a measure which, he has the kindness to tell us, would 'benefit and not injure the public.'

Art. 32. *An Essay concerning Parliaments at a Certainty; or the Kalends of May.* By Samuel Johnson, Author of a Vindication of Magna Charta, &c. Reprinted from the Edition published in 1694, with Notes by the Editor. 8vo. 2s. Hunter. 1817.

It is always of importance, in the consideration of any question, that the data on which an argument is founded should be fully established and acknowleged by both parties. The fact discussed in this little pamphlet was, previously to its re-appearance, openly contradicted: but we have observed that, in the recent debates in our House of Commons, this denial has not been repeated. Whether this silence on the subject is purely accidental, or arises from a conviction obtained in a perusal of the publication before us, we know not: but no reader can close its pages with a doubt remaining on his mind. The question of the *expediency* of annual parliaments, in the present stage of our political existence, may still remain undecided: but the *fact* that they were a part of the constitution of the kingdom can no longer be a subject of dispute.

Mr. Johnson shews most clearly, by reference to various authorities, that parliaments were originally assembled "two times yearly, or oftener if need were," and that the practice so continued down to Edward I.; — that subsequently, and as low as the reign of Charles I., the law was "that a parliament should yearly be holden;" — that "these yearly parliaments were fresh and fresh;" — and that, in consequence of the long discontinuance of parliaments by Charles, the nation found the necessity of having a cautionary parliament every three years to secure their annual parliaments for the two years immediately preceding," when it was accordingly provided in the 16th year of his reign "that, in case the two first years' parliaments should fail, then came a peremptory parliament, which the King and Keeper might call if they pleased, but, if they did not, the Counties and Boroughs of England were forced to send." The 16 Charles II. c. 1. repeals this act: but, "because by the antient laws and statutes of this realm made in the reign of King Edward III. parliaments are to be held very often," it proceeds to enact that "they shall not be intermitted or discontinued above three years at the most." — These statutes were the origin of the *triennial* parliaments, by which however the *interval* between one parliament and another was all that was determined; it not being till the 6 William and Mary, c. 2., that the *continuance* of them for that period was enacted. This was in 1694, the year in which the edition was published from which this pamphlet is reprinted.

The history of the author is well known, in consequence of the persecution which he suffered under Charles II. and James II. for his writings against the Papists, and against the succession of the latter king. He was chaplain to the great Lord William Russel, and had a small living in Essex; of which he was deprived when he was degraded from his order of priesthood, previously to suffering the pillory and being whipped from Newgate to Tyburn, in pursuance of the iniquitous sentence pronounced by the Court of King's Bench. Soon after the accession of William III., his benefice was restored; and, though he did not obtain any farther clerical preferment, he was rewarded by the King with a substantial pension. He died in May 1703; so that he did not witness the additional extension of the duration of parliaments to *seven* years, which was not rendered law till 1 George I. st. ii. c. 38., being the year of the rebellion (1715) to which the preamble alludes.

We are indebted to the present editor for this re-print; and also for some notes and an appendix, the former of which consists of references and illustrations materially assisting the proof, and the latter renders it conclusive by producing extracts from three lists of representatives for Kent, London, and Norwich, during the reigns of Edward III. and Henry V. and VI., in which not only different returns in immediately successive years occur, but even two and sometimes three in several parliaments during the same year.

POETRY.

Art. 33. *A most solemn and important Epistle to the Emperor of China;* on his uncourtly and impolitic Behaviour to the Sublime Ambassadors of Great Britain. By Dr. John Wolcot, (*Olim* Peter Pindar, Esq.) 4to. 1s. 6d. Walker and Edwards. 1817.

Long as Dr. Wolcot was known under the name of Peter Pindar, he was never accustomed to place his real and his fictitious appellations in juxta-position: but he has now been silent for so considerable a period, and so many poetic scribblers have endeavoured to pass for him or as his Pindaric descendants, that he seems to have judged it necessary, on once again wielding his quill, to identify himself with his pseudo-denomination. It is not the first time, however, that he has gone as far as China for a subject; and now, he tells us in his title-page, *Facit indignatio versus:*

> ' I, who had dropt the Muse's quill,
> And long had left th' Aonian hill,
> Start from my slumber, with my wonted might;
> To scourge a monarch of the East,
> For mocking monarchs of the West,
> A Lord of Britain and advent'rous Knight.'

The reported ill success of Lord Amherst, on his recent embassy to China, has excited the patriotic resentment of our old friend P. P.; and he has expressed his vituperations of the Chinese Emperor in terms that may amuse and please English readers, but will certainly neither incense nor amend his Imperial Majesty.

At the commencement, the poet both blames and pities the bad policy of the Chinese in *rejecting our addresses*, while he slily hints at a predilection for Chinese productions which, he says, was arising in this country.

> ' Know, we were growing all Chinese—
> Nought but the Eastern style could please;—
> Witness the glittering gold Pavilion rooms;
> Where (for the noses of the great,
> His Highness may vouchsafe to treat)
> Snakes of a size enormous puff perfumes.
>
> ' Each animal in Noah's ark
> Had fill'd our fam'd Saint James's Park;
> From trees huge monkies by their tails would swing—
> Cats play their gambols—parrots squall—
> Toads, frogs, and snakes, and lizards crawl,
> To rival the rich scenes of Yving-ming!' &c. &c.

Finally, the bard notifies the disappointment of our Court, and threatens what the vengeance of Britain may effect.

> ' Pall-Mall will howl, poor Windsor mourn,
> Dreaming of presents in return,
> Loading th' Alceste as deep as she could swim;
> So cramm'd with treasures of the East,
> From stem to stern with bag and chest,
> The straddling Tars could scarcely wag a limb.

'Thou never didst vouchsafe, perhaps,
  To cast thine eye sublime on maps;
And therefore, fancying thyself all-mighty,
  Hast treated us with pompous scorn—
  Beneath thy notice—beggars born—
No better than the folks of Otaheite!

'Know, should Old England's genius frown,
  Her thunder soon would shake thy crown,
Reduce thee from an eagle to a wren;
  Thine high imperial pride to gall,
  Force thee to leap the Chinese wall,
To feed on horse with Tartar tribes again.'

The reader will recognize in this poem the lawful (or unlawful) manner of its well-known facetious author: but the subject, perhaps, has contributed to render it less remarkable than his former productions for wit, fun, and satire.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 34. *Manuscrit venu de St. Helène, d'une Manière inconnue.* 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1817.

Art. 35. *Manuscript transmitted from St. Helena, by an unknown Channel.* 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Murray.

We suspected the authenticity of this publication from the first moment of its appearance; and not the least of the reasons that we discovered for this opinion was its own assertion that it came from St. Helena through 'an unknown channel.' Had the MS. been genuine, every exertion would have been made to prove it so, and to demonstrate the means by which it came to this country: to say nothing of the palpable absurdity of an *unknown channel:* it could not come but by a channel that *might be known*. Our inquiries on the subject, however, have converted our doubt of its fabrication into certainty: and when we inform our readers that the book is decidedly an "invention of the enemy," we have only to add that it is not a "weak" one. Well, however, as the fabrication has been managed, yet, being a fabrication, it has no real interest.

Art. 36. *A Letter to William Smith,* Esq. M.P. from Robert Southey, Esq. 8vo. Murray. 1817.

Mr. William Smith, the Member for Norwich, whose liberal principles are well known, and acknowleged even by his opponents, is reported to have lately read in the House a passage from Mr. Southey's poem of *Wat Tyler*, in which the rights of equality are strongly enforced; and then to have contrasted it with another quotation attributed to the same author, selected from a recent number of a periodical work, of a tendency directly opposite, and vehemently abusing those who still hold any of Mr. S.'s former opinions. At the end of six weeks from the commission of this offence, Mr. Southey issued forth a letter of vindication; in which, as he terms it, he purposes to treat 'his calumniator with just and *memorable* severity.' With regard to the passage from the periodical work, he endeavours to shelter himself from responsibility because that publication is anonymous, and report, which may be mistaken, is the only authority by which any particular paper can be attributed to one person or to another.* This defence we should be inclined to allow in its full force, were not the antient and established rule of secrecy in periodical criticism now so much disregarded, and the names of the contributors to the publication in question circulated with every degree of notoriety. Mr. Southey must therefore be contented to take the consequences of the exposure which has been courted.—He enters into a laboured defence of his gradual change from 'the political opinions which the French revolution scattered throughout Europe,' to those which he now holds; and, in a strain of alternate defence and abuse, he remarks on the production which has created so much notice. This is surely unnecessary. Mr. Smith does not find fault with the work, nor with Mr. Southey for changing his political creed: but it is the virulence with which Mr. Southey visits those who differ from his present sentiments, and who avow opinions if not entirely, at least nearly, the same with those which he formerly professed, that has called forth the observation and excited the disgust not only of Mr. William Smith, but of every other moderate man.

It is ludicrous, while Mr. S. disclaims 'the habit of egotism,' to observe the numberless instances of inordinate vanity with which these forty-five pages are filled. We lately had occasion to notice this vice in one of his *laurelled* poems; and, from its re-appearance in prose, we fear that it is a rooted habit. The concluding passage, in which he writes a page in his own history, and proclaims the imperishable nature of his productions and his name,—in which, in short, he is "his own glass, his own trumpet, his own chronicle,"—forms a climax of self-conceit that has no parallel.

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* If Mr. Smith has no right to attribute to Mr. Southey's pen an article in one periodical work, how does Mr. Southey found his claim to appropriate any part of another to that of Mr. Brougham?

CORRESPONDENCE.

A very modest letter, signed *Samuel Whitchurch*, informs us that the lines on Mary Wollstonecraft, quoted in our Number for April last, p. 369., from the "Remains of William Read," 'were transcribed with very little variation' from stanzas written by Mr. Whitchurch in 1804, "*in memory of a late celebrated female writer*," and published in a small work intitled "*Hispaniola*."—

We know not what are the two productions of Mr. W.'s pen, which, he observes, have escaped our notice.

In our last Number, (p. 104.) we are requested to state, the price of Bigland's Geography was erroneously put down at 6s. instead of 2s. 6d. bound. Accidents of this kind would be prevented, and much inconvenience avoided, if publishers would always print or mark the prices of books on the first page.

⁎ The APPENDIX to Vol. LXXXII. was published with our last Review.

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THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For JULY, 1817.

ART. I. *Memoirs on the Ionian Islands*, considered in a Commercial, Political, and Military, Point of View; in which their Advantages of Position are described, as well as their Relations with the Greek Continent: including the Life and Character of Ali Pacha, the present Ruler of Greece; together with a comparative Display of the ancient and modern Geography of the Epirus, Thessaly, Morea, Part of Macedonia, &c. &c. By Gen. Guillaume de Vaudoncourt, late of the Italian Service. Translated from the Original inedited MS. by William Walton, Esq. 8vo. pp. 502. 15s. Boards. Baldwin and Co.

NUMEROUS as have been our late publications on the subject of Greece, we have as yet had nothing to announce that bears the stamp of research conducted under the sanction of government, or productive of the fruits of official investigation. In this respect, the work before us is clearly distinguished from those of ordinary travellers; the author having evidently had access to a series of public documents, and having in fact brought together a stock of information which it would have exceeded the competency of any private individual to collect. Gen. de V. has not chosen to prefix any explanatory notice relative to the manner of his obtaining possession of these materials, or even as to the capacity in which he served at the time of their coming into his hands; and the preface of the translator is confined to a few general observations on the prospect of dismembering the Turkish empire: with an insinuation, however, that the book now given to the world contains a large portion of the official and inedited information of the French cabinet. We learn, also, from different passages in the volume, that the General visited Constantinople; and we perceive that (p. 44.) the public offices of that empire were open to him in a way that implies his investiture with an official character, either diplomatic or military, on the part of the Italian government, which in those days was the same with that of France.

As to the composition of this work, our readers will soon perceive that our testimony is of a mixed nature; and that

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the author, while by no means devoid of a claim to approbation in some respects, has in others laid himself open to considerable animadversion. We have not here, as in the pages of Dr. Clarke, a string of quotations, or of tedious local disquisitions; the remarks are conveyed in plain and concise language; and the compass of information is much beyond that which is generally dealt out to the public in the same space:—advantages which would have rendered the present volume eminently entertaining, as well as useful, had the writer bestowed more pains in finishing his composition, or had the translator corrected the deficient style of the original. This, however, he has by no means done: so that our commendation must be restricted to the *matter* of the volume; which, contrary to the usual practice, surpasses the promise of the title-page, since, in addition to a very full memoir on the Ionian islands, we have a number of general observations on the Turkish empire. The leading outlines of the whole are, *a Geographical Account of Modern Greece;*—an *Historical Notice of Ali Pacha;*—the *Political Situation of the Turkish Empire*, particularly with regard to Austria and Russia;—and the *Importance of the Ionian islands, either for attacking or defending the Turkish Empire.*—We begin by extracting the author's account of the *Manners of the Albanians:*

'The Albanian soldiers, accustomed to the cold temperature of their mountains, and dressed in a cloak of some considerable thickness, dread neither cold nor heat, which they equally withstand without changing their cloaths. In the winter wrapped up in their cloaks, and in the summer extended upon them, they sleep on the hard ground; they seldom take pains to construct barracks for themselves, and still more rarely make use of tents. They are extremely sober; and their military ration, consisting of two pounds of flour of maize, wheat, or buckwheat, and this frequently reduced to one half, is sufficient for them, with a few black olives or pilchards, which they purchase out of their pay, of which they are extremely economical. They rarely receive meat, and still more so, wine.—They are more active than the Osmanlis, or original Turks, among whom they enjoy such renown, that there is not a pacha of any consequence who is not desirous of having some of these Arnauts in his pay.—They have no idea of regular discipline, and even do not know what it is to be placed in rank and file. Each troop collects around its respective chief, and fights separately from its neighbouring one. They usually enter into battle with shrieks and reproaches, in which they delight, something like the heroes of Homer, and then the fire commences entirely at the will of the soldiers. After the battle has lasted for some time, a suspension of arms usually takes place, when the invectives and reproaches again commence; successively afterwards the engagement is resumed, and if at the expiration of some time neither party has been compelled to retreat, they come to close quarters and make use of their atagans and sabres. Their marches are equally as disorderly as their order of battle, and frequently a column of 6000 men occupies a space of ground equal to five or six leagues. The usual arms of the Albanians are two pistols which they carry in their sash or girdle; an atagan, or a species of cutlass slightly bent forwards, the cutting part of which is in the concavity and something resembling the *harpion* of the ancient Greeks; a sabre, bent backwards, hung to a belt and placed horizontally; and also a long musket, of the calibre of from five-eighths to seven-eighths of an ounce.

'The fine arts are unknown among the Albanians, and the mechanical arts are generally exercised by foreigners. There is, indeed, an university at Joannina, as well as some learned professors, but it is only frequented by Greeks. The three exclusive professions of the Albanians are those of shepherd, agriculturist, and warrior. There is still a fourth which might be added, since they follow it as much as the other three, and this is that of robber. This trade is to them a kind of schooling in the art of war, whence the name of Klephtes or robber is by no means a reproach among them, and the most celebrated chiefs of banditti are sure to make their fortunes and arrive at honours, in testimony of which we have Ali Pacha. This idea is so deeply imprinted among them, and the examples are so frequent, that an Albanian of this class, when asked what occupation he follows, will gravely answer, ἱμάι ἔγο Κλεφτης, I am a robber. This custom is not, however, general in all the cantons of Southern Albania. The Liapis, indeed, scarcely follow any other calling, but the Philates have very few banditti among them. The Zagoriats, successors of the Pelagonians, and who have voluntarily submitted to the Pachas of Joannina, know nothing of brigandage. Mild and hospitable, they have preserved the rigorous manners and character of the ancient Greeks; but, although the fierce and unfeeling qualities noticed among the other Albanians have disappeared from among them, they are not the less brave.'

We can scarcely conceive a more faithless and dangerous character than that of Ali Pacha, as he is described, we apprehend too faithfully, in the pages of M. de Vaudoncourt. In addition to the crimes engendered by restless ambition, he is tainted with those of avarice; and he stops at no violation of justice to transport to his own coffers the property contained in those of his subjects. Among other nefarious practices, he is accustomed to allow his governors to plunder the people in detail, in order that he may afterward step in and reap a wholesale harvest by the confiscation of their ill-acquired wealth. He considers good faith as a weakness among subjects, and as egregious folly on the part of sovereigns; and he lives, accordingly, in a state of perpetual distrust not only of his ministers, but of his nephews, and even of his own sons.

When the latter left him to take charge of their respectiv governments, he was careful to keep their families near him, an did not even make a point of concealing his motive: — in fact he seems to have confidence in no one except his illegitimat brother, who, being born of a black slave, is thus deprived o all pretensions to authority, and may be deemed a safe instrument at the head of the troops. United with these disgusting features, however, Ali Pacha possesses others which give him a strong claim to the attention of the philosophic observer; — his application is unwearied; his memory is surprizingly tenacious; while his address is affable, and even apparently frank, the jealousy and vindictiveness of his nature being concealed under an aspect of tranquillity and unclouded satisfaction. No one surpasses him in penetration into character, in the powe of chusing his servants, or in dexterity in turning useful opportunities to account. He allows his Greek subjects a much larger share of religious toleration than they are permitted to have in other parts of Turkey, and he employs many of that nation both in civil and military stations; not from the slightest liberality of disposition, but from a desire of gaining the confidence of those who form a considerable part of his people, and thus multiplying the connecting links between the detached materials of his kingdom. The Albanians are too ignorant to act the part of ministers, or even of magistrates; the Turks he distrusts and hates; and he flatters himself that the time is not distant when he may entirely shake off his dependence on the Porte. With respect to his conduct towards the Greeks, we are told that

> 'He is surrounded by them, affects to speak their language equally well with the Albanian, and even not to know the Turkish language well. He enters into the details of their instruction, and sometimes causes the children of his Greek domestics to repeat their catechism before him, and has granted them the foundation of an university at Joannina. He draws up the greatest part of his public acts in Greek, as well as of his own private correspondence, and has no hesitation to make use of the date of the Christian era. The author himself is possessed of several autographical letters of Ali Pacha written in this manner.
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> 'However he takes the greatest care to prevent the Greeks from becoming too powerful: he keeps from them the most important posts, and particularly the military commands. He is also extremely careful to keep them at a distance from his children, and to prevent them from gaining any ascendancy over their minds. His son Veli causes him no inquietude on this score; but Mouktar, of a character entirely different from his brother, appears to incline towards the Greeks. The unfortunate Euphrosina, the most interesting female of Joannina, as well for her beauty as the qualities of her mind, became a victim to this jealousy. Mouktar was in

love with her, and was every day at her house, where the most distinguished Greeks assembled together with their wives. Ali feared that the conversations and principles of the Greeks, coming from the mouth of so accomplished a female, whom he tenderly loved, might make too strong an impression on the mind of his son. In an underhand manner, he excited the wives of Mouktar, and particularly the one who was the daughter of the Vizir of Berat, to complain, and even to demand a divorce. Ibrahim Pacha took part in the affair, and upheld the complaints of his daughter. Ali then turned the matter into an affair of state; and his divan having been assembled, it was therein decided that Euphrosina and the other females of her society, to the number of fifteen, declared guilty of having seduced Mouktar, and thereby exposed Ali to the danger of sustaining a war against his neighbour, should be drowned. They were arrested in the night; when Ali Pacha, not having been able to find one of his satellites sufficiently bold to expose himself to the anger of Mouktar, himself proceeded to the house of Euphrosina, and delivered her over to her executioners.'

Of his sons, it is said;

'Mouktar, the eldest, is brave, generous, and upright; he loves the arts and sciences, and his intercourse with Euphrosina had considerably tended to the polish of his mind. Yet war is his habitual element and favourite passion; and when he is unable to give himself up to this occupation, he devotes his time to hunting. Simple in his dress, sober even to frugality, and hardy in his habits, he travels over the mountains on foot in his hunting excursions; he fares on simple bread and water without complaint; he cares not if he lays hardly; and in the camp he is in the midst of his soldiers, and sleeps on the ground wrapped up in a coarse Albanian cloak. Faithful in fulfilling his engagements, there is no one in Ali's dominions who does not hasten at his first request to furnish what he wishes: he returns it scrupulously at the term prefixed, and frequently adds a recompense.—The severity and honesty of Mouktar's principles render him cold, though respectful, towards his father, and make him despise his brother, whom he treats as a dishonest, debauched, and dissipated character. Ali, on his side, is not much attached to him, and even fears him; but in return he is beloved and esteemed by the Greeks, and cherished and respected by the Albanians.

'Veli, Ali Pacha's second son, possesses many of the characteristic traits of his father. Like him he is avaricious, ambitious, dissembling, and distrustful. He is also equally addicted to rapine, and extremely unfaithful in complying with his engagements.— His conduct is marked by an effeminate softness, and he is greatly addicted to pleasure and debauch.—Veli, however, is not devoid of courage; and his conduct during the last war with Russia enabled him to gain both praise and consideration. He is extremely jealous of his brother, and does not appear disposed, notwithstanding he is the eldest, to allow Mouktar to remain in peaceful possession of Joannina after his father's death. Ali, on his part, loves Veli better than his eldest son; but with regard to him he is not the less distrustful.'

Nothing has baffled this enterprising adventurer more completely than the difficulty of accustoming his subjects to manage artillery on the European plan. All the efforts of the French officers were incompetent to overcome the indolence and prejudices of the Turks; or even their apprehension of accident from the blowing up of an ammunition-coffer, which, indeed, is no ideal danger when we take into account their habitual carelessness and aukwardness. The result has been that the European field-pieces belonging to Ali Pacha are either shut up in his forts or mounted on cumbrous and half-rotten carriages. Some of these difficulties arise from the deficiency of his supplies of arms and ammunition; the gunpowder made in his dominions is of very inferior quality; of muskets he has no manufacture; and his sword-blades are imported from Bosnia, or Upper Albania. The population of his dominions does not easily admit of calculation, the Turks being unaccustomed to any thing in the shape of official registers. Pouqueville computed the number at a million and a half, exclusive of the Morea, which may be put down in the present writer's opinion (p. 291.) at considerably more than Dr. Clarke reckons it; we mean at 450,000 souls, making a total of nearly two millions who are subject, directly or indirectly, to the sway of Ali Pacha. His principal towns and their inhabitants are,

Joannina	40,000	Berat	12,000	Trikala	8,000
Larissa	20,000	Livadea	10,000	Metzovo	7,000
Monastir	15,000	Arta	10,000	Margariti	6,000
Argyro-Castro	12,000	Paramithia	8,000	Ochrida	6,000
		Delvino	8,000	Elbassan	6,000

'The mode of travelling in the dominions of Ali Pacha is such as it has always been in the greatest part of Turkey in Europe, that is, on horseback. No one of the great communications existing between the capital of the empire and the frontiers is practicable for carriages in the whole of its extent. The travelling across the high chains of mountains, such as the Scordus, Boreas, Pindus, Othrys, Œta, Rhodope, and the Hæmus, is extremely difficult, from their being intersected with glens and precipices; there, indeed, the high roads are nothing more than very indifferent paths. This is the reason that prevents foreigners arriving there by land from bringing their carriages with them; and in the country we find nothing but mean carts. Besides, even if such a convenience were possible, it would not be advisable for an European of the west to suffer himself to be seen in an equipage so extraordinary for its novelty, in the middle of a country where it is requisite as much as possible to avoid the air and appearance of every thing that is strange.—

'It is necessary for the traveller to carry his own provisions with him, as the inhabitants usually do, and even his cooking utensils, if he does not wish to live according to the usages of the country. It is also advisable to carry with one every requisite to sleep upon, in order to avoid the inconvenience of being obliged to bivouac.'—

'The conveyance of merchandise from the interior of Turkey to the principal fairs of Macedonia and Greece, as well as to the frontiers of Dalmatia and Germany, is performed on the backs of horses; mules are rarely used, unless it is towards Bosnia and Dalmatia, where those from Italy are purchased, and camels still more rarely. The latter animal is only seen passing through the country, and when caravans of them are met with, they are coming from Asia; indeed they seldom pass beyond Salonica. The horse's load is generally equal to three Turkish quintals; and in the land trade carried on with Dalmatia and Austria it is indifferent to reckon by the load or by the quintal. The caravans are mostly numerous, and it is not unusual to see 300 or 400 horses escorted by about 100 armed persons, who are either merchants, conductors, or servants. This precaution is necessary, particularly in Bulgaria, Bosnia, and part of Servia.'

A considerable portion of this volume is appropriated to speculations on past political conjunctures; particularly on the chances that existed of Ali Pacha throwing off the Turkish yoke at different periods of the Russian war against the Porte, and still more at the time when France was in possession of Dalmatia and the Ionian islands. This discussion leads M. de V. to a topic of wider extent and deeper interest, we mean the fate that hangs over the Ottoman dominion at large. Many of our readers will recollect the menacing coalition formed thirty years ago between Austria and Russia, for the invasion and expected conquest of the Turkish empire. Mr. Pitt took part from the beginning, as far as diplomatic efforts went, against those formidable aggressors, and the court of Versailles was evidently actuated by a similar feeling: but revolutionary troubles in France, and the inadequacy of our military means in those days, prevented either Government from coming efficiently forwards to the support of the Turks. The Austrians, however, were repeatedly baffled in their efforts along the Turkish frontier, partly by the fanatic impetuosity of their opponents, but more by the bad generalship of the Prince of Coburg, and the difficulty of carrying on operations in an unhealthy and uncultivated country. This disappointment, and the alarming troubles in the Netherlands, soon led to a separate pacification on the part of Austria; after which Russia continued the contest alone, and, as far as Suwarrow

row commanded, with considerable success: until exhausted finances, and the dread of maritime hostilities with England, obliged the ambitious Catherine to suspend her career of aggrandizement. Next came the alarms of the French revolution, which operated for many years as an effectual protection to a state whose only security now lies in the dissensions of her neighbours. Even the invasion of Egypt by Bonaparte, while it brought to light all the weakness of the Porte, was far from accelerating her fall, because it led her to a more intimate and cordial connection with England.

This struggle was closed by the treaty of Amiens; when France chose to hold a friendly language, and to declare the indivisibility of the Turkish empire to be one of the main objects of her policy. In pursuance of this pretended cordiality, Bonaparte inserted a stipulation in the treaty of Tilsit that the "Russians should evacuate Moldavia and Walachia:" but this soon proved to be merely a diplomatic artifice, as no such evacuation took place; and no doubt can remain that he obtained the acquiescence of Russia to his invasion of Spain by promising her a similar connivance in her aggressions on Turkey. The consequence of this concert was more beneficial to Russia than to France, the former acquiring Finland on the one hand and Bessarabia on the other; after which the unnatural alliance drew to a close, and the rising animosity between the two courts led in 1812 to a pacification between Russia and Turkey, followed by the northward march of that army which made such fatal havoc of the flying French on the banks of the Berezina:

'The successive aggrandizement of Napoleon's empire; the ever increasing pressure he exercised from west to east, and which even his fatal war in Spain had never suspended; all seemed to announce that a new change in the political system of Europe was about to produce the dismemberment of the Turkish empire. Nevertheless, the conduct of Napoleon towards the Porte was uniformly dubious; whether it was that he had not yet fixed his determination on that point, or that the time had not yet arrived for putting his plans into execution. On the one hand, he appeared to abandon that country to the discretion of Russia; and in not insisting on the performance of an article in the treaty of Tilsit *, he seemed to consent to its depression or its destruction. On the other, he took care to ameliorate the land communications of Turkey with Dalmatia and Croatia, and to open others. He converted the custom-house of Kostainitza into an entrepot of the first rank; he re-established the fairs of Sinigaglia; in a word, he

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' * By this article it was stipulated that the Russian troops should evacuate Moldavia and Valachia. — Tr.'

appeared diligent to consolidate the commercial communications, in conformity to the frontiers at that time established, as well as in accord with the prosperity and integrity of the Ottoman empire. Nevertheless, he had not neglected any of the measures capable of giving him an exact knowledge of the country, of its resources, and means of defence. Numerous connections had been formed in the provinces of Greece; the various consuls had received instructions, tending either to furnish the information wanted, or, in a secret manner, to work upon the public mind. Officers had been sent into the country under different pretexts, and all had brought back with them memoirs more or less important. The frequency of these missions had already begun to create inquietude in the suspicious character of the Turks. Ibrahim, Pacha of Scutari, on this subject observed to the author, "Napoleon now sends one Frenchman after another; soon he will send ten, then one hundred, next a thousand, and afterwards a whole army."

'Some persons have pretended, that without the rupture with Russia, which took place in 1812, the intention of the Emperor Napoleon was to carry his arms into Turkey. Others again assert, that this expedition was not to be carried into effect till after the campaign of Russia, and the re-establishment of Poland. The truth is, no act, no ostensible measure, authorizes the conclusion that a war with the Ottoman empire was among the number of projects which then occupied the mind of Napoleon. In 1810 he received a project of an invasion of Turkey, founded on the facilities he might derive from his extended frontiers, and the possession of the Seven Islands. He simply caused the author to be told, that he was satisfied with his labours, without adding a word from which it might be inferred that he found them of immediate utility, or even that he intended to avail himself of them.'

We feel little disposition to enter farther on a theme which can now lead to no conclusions of practical utility; and we are, for the same reason, contented to pass over all that General de V. has inserted about the antient political situation of the Ionian islands. The grand feature of his reasoning is that the Turkish empire is easily assailable on the side of Italy; and that, were Austria in possession of the Ionian islands, she would soon attempt to stretch her sovereignty over the Morea and the north of Greece. Russia would be by no means backward in assisting her by assailing Turkey on the north; and, as ever since the second invasion of France in 1815 the cabinet of the Tuileries has had no pretensions to hold an independent language in defence of any foreign state, the result is that the preservation of peace depends at present on us, and on our adherence to that policy which recommends that Turkey in Europe should by no means be added to two already overgrown empires. How unfortunate it is that the civilized powers cannot agree on that plan of liberal policy, which would reinstate the Greeks in their antient freedom, and remove the despotism of the Turks beyond the limits of Europe! This, however, we must dismiss as a visionary expectation; since we can have little hope that Austria and Russia will do any thing towards the emancipation of this most interesting part of Europe without the prospect of dividing it among themselves.

We come now to the *Habits of the Modern Greeks.*—The character of these people remains, particularly among the shepherds and husbandmen, extremely similar to that which they bore in the days of their ancestors. The Thessalians are still dexterous horsemen; the Epirots, as courageous as in the days of Pyrrhus; and the Athenians, as restless and intriguing in the nomination of the petty archonte of the day as when their choice of magistrates had an influence on one half of Greece. This resemblance of manners is particularly striking in mountainous districts, where the inhabitants have almost always succeeded in preserving their independence, and where the traveller meets with the hospitality of the days of Homer, and is welcomed to a cottage by a present of wine and fruit. In the towns, the apartment of the women is still called *Gynekaios*, and is separate from that of the men; the dispositions of male and female are still lively, witty, and happily adapted to the acquisition of knowlege: but unfortunately in the towns the dread and abject submission, in which the Greeks live, have often made those qualities which under better circumstances would have been called prudence and ingenuity assume the aspect of deception and dissimulation.—It is a curious fact, and applicable to the modern Greeks at large, that many Pagan ideas are still mixed with their Christian worship: not a boat passes the celebrated temple of Leucadia without the master throwing a small piece of money into the sea to deprecate the rage of Neptune: the forest of Dodona is still the scene of adoration; and not a child is carried to be baptized before an offering has been made to the Mirai, (Parcæ,) or Fatal Sisters, who preside over the life of man.

The inhabitants of Epirus maintain that the antient Greek language is less adulterated among them than elsewhere; and certainly it is not there so much overloaded with auxiliaries and foreign words. The Peloponnesus has never been thoroughly subjected to the Turkish sway, and contains a population prepared, whenever circumstances shall become favourable, to rise up in the assertion of their pristine liberty. At the head of these intrepid descendants of the Spartans, Messenians, and Achaians, we are to place the Mainots, or inhabitants of the lofty ridges of Mount Taygetus, into which no invader of the Morea has ever penetrated. Our readers will find a notice of this remarkable tribe by a reference to our report of Mr. Galt's travels: (M. R. Vol. lxxi. p. 341.) so that at present we shall only remark that the great damp on the national spirit of the Peloponnesians arises from the recollection of the disasters of the Russian invasion in 1770; when the natives, who flocked to the standard of their new allies, were doomed to fall successively victims to the folly and inadequate means of the Russian commander. Had that General (Count Orlof) previously purchased the neutrality of the Albanian chiefs, and secured the isthmus of Corinth, he might have bidden defiance, for a length of time, to all the efforts of the Turks; instead of which he merely went so far as to justify the aggression and plunder of the Albanians, 'who soon made their way into the peninsula, and were guilty of the most revolting outrages. So direful is the impression of that unhappy time on the present generation, that the Moreans, though ready to join the standards of an Austrian, English, or French force, would on no account take the field to co-operate with Russians.

We have made a point of paying more attention to General de V.'s observations regarding the Turkish empire, than to his statistical and political comments on the Ionian islands. On this subordinate part of the subject, we have space only for the following extract, descriptive of the far famed but barren Ithaca, and its more important neighbours.

' Thiaki, formerly called *Ithaca*, is an island of about 20 miles in length, stretching from N. W. to S. E.—The island of Thiaki in reality forms two, united by an isthmus of about a mile wide. To the N. it widens between Cape Markama, standing in front of Cephalonia, and Cape St. John, about 12 miles distant from each other. The southern part, which is about five miles wide, finishes at another Cape St. John, opposite to the mouth of the Achelous. In this southern part is the village of Oxoi, situated on a mountain. In the northern part, on another mountain, is the village of Anoi, formerly *Neius*. These two portions of the island are separated by a bay five miles deep and two wide, and in the eastern part of the same bay are two ports. The one, called Skinon, is placed near the entrance; and the other which is that of Vathy, has a narrow mouth, but is afterwards almost two miles deep. At the bottom of this port is the small town of Vathy, containing about 3000 inhabitants and occupying the ground of the ancient Ithaca, the capital as well as the residence of the wise Ulysses, Penelope, and Telemachus. The ruins called Paleo-Kastro, seen to the S. E. of Vathy, must have belonged to Ithaca or the ancient palace of Ulysses. Vathy is the native place of

Senetor

Senctor Zaró, one of the most distinguished magistrates of Ionia as well for the goodness of his character as for his learning. Tradition makes him descend from Ulysses, the counsellor of Agamemnon and the friend of Nestor; and of such an honour he is in every respect deserving.—

'Cephalonia, anciently *Cephalenia*, the second in rank of the Seven Islands, is the first in point of size. It is 100 miles in circumference from cape to cape, and nearly 150 in following the direction of the coast.—The small town of Argostoli is the most considerable one of the island, although it does not contain more than 5000 souls. This place was anciently known by the name of Cranii.'—

'The island of Cephalonia is not very abundant in wheat, though it produces more than the others; but it is fertile in good wines and excellent fruits, particularly melons of a very superior quality.

'Zante, formerly *Zacynthus*, is an island of about 12 miles in length and 30 in circumference.—The city of Zante, anciently also called *Zacynthus*, and having a population of 16,000 souls, is built in a line along the eastern side of the island.'—

'In conformity to the returns presented to the French Governor-general in 1807, the total population of the Septinsular Republic at that period amounted to a little more than 200,000 souls, distributed in the following proportions: Corfu, 60,000; Cephalonia, 60,000; Zante, 40,000; St. Maura, 20,000; Cerigo, 10,000; Thiaki, 8000; and Paxó, 8000. From the above period, no emigrations have taken place from the continent which might have added to the population of these islands.'

We have seldom met with a book which furnished a greater variety of miscellaneous information than the present, whether we consider its geographical, its political, or its military contents. How bare and inconsiderable are the notices of passing travellers, in comparison with the long succession of local details given in the fifth, sixth, tenth, and eleventh chapters of this volume! The notices are indeed short, and as far from entertaining as the columns of a Gazetteer: but their number and rapid succession are surprizing. Our limits do not admit of more extracts: but those readers, who are desirous to know how much may be comprized in a small space, have merely to turn to a particular passage, such as (pp. 172, 173.) the geographical sketch of Phocis.

The latter part of the volume consists of a commercial memoir, of considerable importance; of a disquisition on the means of attacking and defending the northern frontier of Turkey; and finally of a survey of the Roman wars carried on against the Macedonians, so admirably described in the latter books of Livy. General de V. intimates an intention of publishing, at a future time, a work on military antiquity; a task a task which, as far as we can judge from his present performance, he is likely to execute satisfactorily. The chief fault of his composition, particularly in the passages relative to the history and character of Ali Pacha, consists in a redundancy and want of condensation which are natural to a mind that is unaccustomed to writing, and impressed with the notion that a multiplicity of words is necessary to convey an idea in all its force. His map of Greece is one of the best and most comprehensive that we have happened to see: but, as it is not sufficiently minute, with regard to the northern part, for tracing all the military operations of the Romans, the reader is referred to the map of the dominions of Ali Pacha lately published by Cary, in the Strand.

The translation is so defective that we should not, in critical justice, be authorized to pass it over without animadversion. What is a classical scholar to think of an account of Mycene disfigured with such name as Orestus and Thyestus; or what will the plain English reader say to such phrases as *rivality* for rivalship; 'a governmental system;' 'the *most principal* fault;' or of a harbour that is 'at all times by no means secure'? It is in the same spirit that the translator talks (p. 169.) of the Locrians Ozoles, (for Locri Ozolæ,) of *the* Epirus, of an animosity 'propagating' among families, and of that most singular of all countenances which is said (p. 263.) to 'wear the impression of frankness and honesty, and particularly of a profound wheedler.'

Art. II. *Transactions of the Geological Society,* established November 13. 1807. Vol. III. With Plates and Maps. 4to. pp. 450. 3l. 13s. 6d. Boards. W. Phillips. 1816.

Two considerations forcibly recommend the proceedings of this learned body to our favourable notice; namely, their general tendency to promote the discovery and diffusion of truth rather than the maintenance or promulgation of preconceived theory, and their pointed reference to the geological appearances and mineralogical resources of our own country. In neither of these important respects will the present volume be found to fall short of its precursors. Of the fifteen articles which it contains, the first is intitled,

Sketch of the Mineralogy of Sky, by John Mac Culloch, M.D. F.L.S., President of the Geological Society, and Lecturer on Chemistry at the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich.—Though this essay extends through a hundred and eleven pages, and is never busied with irrelevant matters, it by no means exhausts the subject. The President's short stay on the island, the wet and stormy weather which he seems to have encountered, the want of an accurate map of the surface which he explored, the deep indentations of the sea, which so abruptly break the continuity of strata, the nearly impassible state of some districts, and the inaccessible nature of others, conspired to abridge, impede, or arrest his observations, to the frequent and mutual regret of himself and his readers. Having stated the discouraging circumstances under which Dr. Mac Culloch prosecuted his researches, we may be allowed to express our surprise that he performed his task, incomplete as it unavoidably is in some particulars, with so much distinctness and ability. His highly interesting report, though not formally divided into parts, exhibits, in the first place, a general view of the island; secondly, its geological physiognomy, or the constitution and arrangement of its rocks; and, thirdly, a description of the most remarkable mineral substances which attracted his attention.

When a stranger first approaches the 'Isle of Mist,' he perceives little else than tracts of dreary moor, bare and rugged rocks, a stormy sea, and almost incessant rains. A closer inspection, however, reveals scenes both of grandeur and beauty, and several spots marked by their comparative fertility and population. An area of nearly twenty square miles is occupied by the lofty *Cuchullin*, and the protracted ridge of *Blaven*, which form the principal mountain groupe; of which the dark sterility of its masses, and the rugged and spiry forms of its outline, singularly contrast with the tame and rounded contour of another large groupe, which the author calls the *Red Hills*. The inferior ranges, and the portions of alluvial soil, are comparatively inconsiderable. Of the towering and precipitous cliffs on the western coast of the island, it is remarked that most of them are too square and monotonous to afford fit subjects for the pencil; and even the detached pyramidal masses are rather singular than picturesque.

Though we cannot afford to keep close company with the intrepid President in the details of his peregrinations, we would not willingly withhold from our readers the following impressive paragraph:

> 'Loch Scavig is an inlet of the sea about a mile in depth, formed by the Cuchullin hills, which rise with all their spiry and naked crags high towering above it. At the bottom of this bay they descend suddenly into the sea, brown and bare, with scarcely a spot of verdure to enliven their dark sides, the only semblance of life [which] they possess consisting in the motion of the few cascades which foam down their rugged declivities. Points of detached rocks, projecting into the sea from their base, produce

foregrounds for the use of the artist, and relieve that intense depth of shadow which seems ever to reign where the sun-beams can scarcely find access. But even the grandeur, the silence and desolation of this place are forgotten, when in a moment, on turning the angle of a huge rock, the spectator enters on a scene which suspends the recollection of all which had fascinated him before. He finds himself in a lone valley surrounded by a wall of dark and naked rock, of which the rugged summits are lost in the clouds, intercepting the light of day, and casting a twilight gloom over the seat of eternal repose. If ever a sound disturbs this repose, it is that of the wind which whistles against the rocks, or of the cascade which rushes down their sides; if ever vestige of life is seen, it is the lone sea-gull dipping its wing in the black still waters of Coruisk.* The valley once closed behind the spectator, he sees no more its egress, and calls to mind the tales of eastern fiction, where the victim of magic is for ever immured in some profound chasm of the mountains of Caucasus. The lake Coruisk is rather more than two miles in length, being fed by a powerful stream at its upper end, and discharging itself into the sea by a wide and rocky channel, a favourite resort of salmon. Its shores are every where covered with huge fragments of rock detached from the mountains above, and it contains two or three small islands which diversify in some measure the darkness of its surface. The nakedness of the rocks is not poetical. On the declivity of the mountain Garsven in particular, they rise from the base to the very summit, a height of at least 3000 feet, in huge smooth sheets at a very high angle, perfectly bare and of a dark iron brown colour, not chequered even by the growth of a single lichen or by one foreign tint to enliven the uniform gloom of the surface. This rock seems indeed absolutely inimical to vegetation, nor does it appear to undergo the slightest decomposition, or to admit of the formation of soil, the detached fragments showing as little tendency to waste as the mountain itself. Had the globe of the earth been entirely formed of this rock, it would still have been lifeless and void. It was among these fragments that I observed a rocking stone of considerable size and easily moved, having to all appearance fallen on such an edge as to allow of the conditions required for producing this effect.'

After having adverted to the numerous caves which have been observed to occur in the secondary strata, Dr. Mac Culloch proceeds thus:

'Another has recently become the cause of great resort to Sky on account of its stalactitic concretions, and it is popularly distinguished by the name of the Spar Cave: it lies on the estate of Mr. Macalister, and is too well known to require any more accurate description of its locality. This cave is accessible from the cliffs above, for a short time only at low water, but by means of a boat it may be visited at any time in moderate weather, or with the wind off the shore. The entrance is little less striking than the cave itself, and to the admirer of the picturesque it presents a scene even more attractive. It is formed by a fissure in the cliff, extending for a considerable way, and rising into high and parallel walls on each side, its gloom being partially illuminated by reflected light, and its silence scarcely disturbed by the wash of the surf without. A narrow and obstructed opening leads unexpectedly into the cave: hence for a distance of about an hundred feet all is dark, wet, and dreary, till we arrive at a steep acclivity formed of a white stalagmite. Surmounting this with some difficulty, the whole interior and ornamental part of the cave comes into view, covered with stalactites disposed in all the grotesque forms which these incrustations so commonly assume. Lively imaginations may here indulge in the discovery of fanciful resemblances, and the concretions have accordingly received names more descriptive of the fancies of the spectators than of their real forms. The dimensions of the fissure are in this place but inconsiderable, the breadth not being more than ten feet, and the height scarcely exceeding twelve: it is not long however before the height suddenly increases to forty feet or more, and a declivity of perhaps thirty feet in length, from the surface of the stalagmitical and cascade-like mount which forms the division between the sparry and the dark part of the fissure, conducts to a pool of water occupying a space of twelve or fifteen feet in length, dividing the cave into an outer and inner portion. The dimensions are here somewhat enlarged, and the height in particular is much more considerable. At a distance of about fifteen or twenty feet more from this pool of water, the stalactitical ornaments cease, and shortly after the cave terminates, the whole length from the entrance to the end being about two hundred and fifty feet. However beautiful the interior of the cave, from the white colour and ornamental effects of the stalactites which incrust it, the want of sufficient dimensions materially lessens the interest, which in all other respects it is calculated to excite. At the termination of the stalactitical ornaments, there is a dark descent for a few yards, filled with rubbish, the ruins of the roof above, which being here naked as well as accessible, is plainly seen to be one of the trap veins. This vein is here about ten feet wide, which is the general breadth of the cave itself, and it is easy to see how by the wearing out of that vein the excavation has been formed, having subsequently acquired its present degrees of ornament by the infiltration of carbonat of lime in solution.'

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* Coruisk, the water of the mountain-hollow, not Coriskin.

In his account of the rocks which predominate in the composition of this island, the author commences with that of mica-slate; which occupies the district of Sleat, stretching from that promontory to an irregular line between Lochs Eishort and Oransa; which offers no peculiarity of structure or aspect; and which is frequently observed passing into the argillaceous, talcose, or chloritic modifications of slate. The quartz-rock, which, in geographical position, follows the mica-slate, and of which the main body occupies two hills situated

above

above Ord, is extremely compact, highly crystalline, weather-beaten to a snowy whiteness, and in some instances varnished with a siliceous mamel. At Ord, a considerable portion of it obviously rests on the beds of red sand-stone. In immediate contact with the white quartz-rock, is a compound series of beds, consisting of dark-blue quartz, interlaminated with thin layers of clay-slate. Rocks of this description form the high mountains above the Kyle r'ich: but the author had it not in his power to trace their connections and bearings throughout. The next rock in succession is the red sand-stone, between which and the blue quartz-rock a gradual transition may sometimes be observed. The beds of this red sand-stone, which succeed one another with much regularity, form a collective mass of great thickness, being, in some places, little less than a thousand feet; and they constitute a considerable part of the hills which rise on the north side of Loch Eishort, &c. The mineralogical character of this red sand-stone is very uniform, being of a moderately fine grain, of various degrees of hardness, and presenting most of the modifications and accidents of the *old red sand-stone* of the Wernerians, with which Dr. Mac Culloch has identified it. In one of its repositories, it is inter-stratified with a schistose matter; which sometimes assumes the character of fine clay-slate, and sometimes that of fine greywacke-slate, thus deranging the *table of precedence* propounded by the school of Freyberg. The Doctor deems it not improbable that the red sand-stone, which appears in various places on the western coast of Scotland, (extending, perhaps, to the eastern side of the island, and finally to Orkney,) may belong to the same series of beds. The next bed in order is lime-stone, of variable thickness, though in some places of several hundreds of feet; frequently stratified, and containing shells, but frequently also bearing every mark, except that of geological position, of such primitive lime-stones as occur in mountains of granite, gneiss, &c.: a most important fact, and which at first nearly bewildered the speculations of this acute geologist. Other stratiform lime-stones and sand-stones are specified, and their characters and relative positions at least partially ascertained. From the conformable order of the beds of blue quartz-rock, slate, and red sand-stone, and the same conformity for the whole way upwards, the corollary is deduced that those rules, 'which would define the secondary rocks by their want of conformity to the primary, either have not selected the first of these primary rocks as their basis, or, the law of non-conformity and of a thorough separation between the two classes is exceptionable.'

The unstratified rocks of Sky are trap and syenite; and to them no very distinct position can be assigned, because, though they often appear as if capping or overtopping the superior strata, it is also manifest that they occasionally penetrate through them. Dr. M'C. observes:

'In commencing the account of these rocks, the trap * and the syenite, I must premise that I have not found in Sky any indication to denote the relative order of the two. If indeed they are both irregular substances, as I think there is no reason to doubt, any priority or posteriority is out of the question, or at least it cannot be ascertained by examining their juxta-positions. If the one set were proved to be constantly superior to one set of stratified rocks, and the other to a different and later set, the question of rank might be settled between them: but these connections are difficult to ascertain to a sufficient extent, and possibly none such exist. If one stratified rock is in one place superior to another, we are sure that it is every where superior; but if we have ever so clearly proved that a body of trap or of any other unstratified rock is superior and in contact in one place to any given stratum, we have no certainty that it is equally so every where. Thus I shall in this island show that the trap rests in one place on the latest sand-stone, in another on the earliest. No means therefore are offered here of determining the relative order of these two unstratified rocks, but I have little doubt from the phenomena which I have witnessed in Rum and Mull, that they are both portions of one irregular mass.'

The unstratified or mountain-trap of the Cuchullin hills passes, without discontinuity, into the stratified, which forms by far the greater portion of the surface of Sky; and it is

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'* I think it necessary to say that I have throughout used the term *Trap* as the name of a family, including basalt, green-stone, tuff, amygdaloid, trap-porphyry, and many other varieties of rock which have as yet obtained no names, and which constitute a class equally distinguished by their geological as by their mineral characters. I have preferred it because, as it is derived from the external outline so common and characteristic of this class of rocks, it is in no danger of misleading by producing any confusion of individuals, and because it was already in use as the name of many in this family without having been rigidly limited to any one species. I have also chosen the term Syenite as the generic term of a set of rocks generally allied to these, and which had already been applied to that rock by Werner; excluding from this denomination the original and *classical* syenite, which as well in geological connection as in mineral character is a mere modification of granite. The compound term syenitic granite may be applied to this, as I have remarked in a former paper. Varieties intermediate between common trap and syenite may be called syenitic trap.'

highly worthy of remark that it manifests, in different places, all the hypothetical characters that have been assigned to the primitive, transition, and flœtz-traps. Among the numerous varieties of the trap-family here specified, basalt is the most conspicuous, and it occurs almost every where; alternating, in an irregular manner, with all the other varieties. It is most frequently amorphous, and sometimes perfectly black, and of a very fine grain. The amygdaloidal sorts are also common, of various colours, of very different degrees of hardness, and including nodules of zeolite, calcareous spar, chlorite, steatite, quartz, chert, chalcedony, and prehnite. Trap-tuff, or, as the author more correctly denominates it, trap-conglomerate, is sufficiently common: but green-stone and green-stone-porphyry are less abundant. To these members of the trap-family are added, by way of supplement, iron clay, coal, in small quantities, siliceous schist, and a particular sort of jasper, which is yellow, or brown, with a lustre approaching to resinous, and perfectly analogous to a similar production from the island of St. Helena, which has been improperly classed with the pitch-stones. Specimens of the same substance have been found in Guadaloupe, 'where they occur among the lavas of that island, adding one more to the numerous analogies already existing between the volcanic rocks and the trap-family.' The unstratified traps of this island present the external features of granite, though they differ from it in composition; consisting of green-stones of various structure and complexions, and clink-stone of several modifications.

In close connection with these substances is the syenite, similar to that which is found with the trap-formation in the isle of Arran. Its basis, which generally passes for felspar, may in its soft state be regarded as a clay-stone, and, in other stages of induration, as clink-stone, or compact felspar. In colour, it varies from ochrey yellow and dirty flesh-colour to gray. Though often cavernous, and impregnated with ferruginous clay in other situations, it contains crystals of felspar, and thus constitutes various kinds of porphyry: but its predominant form, from which its name is derived, is an aggregate of felspar and hornblend, in which the latter generally bears a very small proportion to the first.

Dr. M'C. has entered into some very interesting details relative to the numerous trap-veins that are observable in the island. Their prevailing material is basalt; and they consist of two distinct sets, which hold their course through one another in every direction. 'The angle of their courses with the horizon is various, but in a very considerable proportion it is vertical, or nearly so.' At Strathaird, in consequence of their frequency, when collectively measured they nearly equal in some places the stratified rock through which they pass. Here it is stated that they produce no symptoms of the slightest disturbance having taken place in the evenness of the sand-stone strata which they intersect.

The Doctor commences his descriptive catalogue of the more remarkable minerals which he had occasion to observe, in the course of his survey, with the different kinds of zeolite, some of which occur in great profusion. Analcime, chabasite, and stilbite, (the last in enormous quantities,) all pass in review. Mesotype occurs in the compact, mealy, and crystallized form. Prehnite and epidote are both found in some of the trap-rocks, though in trifling quantities.

'The last and the rarest mineral which I discovered in Sky is hypersthene. This occurs at Scavig, in that singular variety of trap which I have already described in the account I gave of the Cuchullin hills: it forms veins of different dimensions and much blended with the rock in which they lie, but they are neither numerous nor large, nor are the veins simple in their composition, since they resemble the containing rocks in the different substances of which they are composed. The *most* prevailing mixture is however that of hypersthene, and of a dark felspar precisely resembling that of Labrador in its general aspect, but not possessing its iridescence. This felspar is frequently crystallized, but, as the crystals are always completely imbedded, nothing further of their form can be discovered than the outline which is displayed by the fracture; together with the dark felspar, white and glassy felspar also occurs in the mixture, and the common opake white variety is sometimes, but more rarely, intermixed with all the other substances.'—

'The hypersthene presents specimens of great magnitude and beauty, which, although they seem to resist the injuries of time far longer than the accompanying substances, at length also become rotten, and fall into an ochrey powder. Distinct concretions are to be found exhibiting the primitive form, and which appear to be true crystals, since they are detached from the surrounding substances. More generally, however, it is without form, while in many cases it is intermixed with the dark felspar so as to present the graphic character, the crystals of felspar being defined, and the hypersthene occupying the interstices. The lustre of this mineral is always highly metallic, but the specific gravity of the specimens which I examined did not exceed 3.342. The colour is various; in general it is of a purplish black, sometimes steel gray, and more rarely of a pale whitish gray, while it often assumes the hue together with the lustre of polished brass, when it has long been exposed to the air.

'Hypersthene has been found in Aberdeenshire, but the circumstances which accompany it have not been described, nor the nature of its connections ascertained. As far as can be determined by this instance, it must be considered as an inmate of the trap-family. Having also found it in the island of Rum associated with the same class of rocks, additional confirmation is afforded of this connection. That of Labrador is known, like the present, to be accompanied by dark felspar; but the rock which is the common repository of both has not been described by the missionaries, to whom we are indebted for the only knowledge we possess of that country. Mr. Gieskè considers the Labrador felspar of Greenland as belonging to what he calls the "syenite-formation," and it is not improbable that his syenite-formation resembles the rock which I have already described, and that there is a correspondence in the repositories of this substance in both countries.

'Among the rocks, for which I could not find a place in the geological description without disturbing its order, pitchstone requires to be noticed. Although not found *in situ*, it offers as a mineral specimen some appearances which are interesting, and which I shall therefore describe. It was on the hill of Glamich that I found the specimens in question, and it is probable that they had been detached from some veins which I was unable to trace. There are two varieties, a black one very little differing from that of Rum, except that it contains a few dispersed crystals of glassy felspar; and an olive-green one, which, as it offers some apparently important peculiarities hitherto unobserved, I shall describe more fully. It is often of a granular combined with a small conchoidal fracture, and is generally disposed in distinct concretions which are either of the flat or curved lamellar form. It is remarkable for containing irregular rounded cavities similar to those of the amygdaloids, filled with compact grains of a grayish hue. The structure of these is so singular as to be deserving of notice. On breaking the smaller ones, they are discovered to consist of a grayish white enamel, similar to that which is formed by the fusion of felspar. But if we break the longer grains we can distinctly see that the center is composed of glassy felspar, the crystalline transparency and platy fracture of which are perfect, while the surface to a certain depth is converted into the white enamel I have described. I have not observed this very peculiar and striking appearance in any other pitchstone which has come under my notice, although there are appearances not much unlike it in some of the varieties found in Arran.

'Those who conceive pitchstone, like basalt, to be of igneous origin, will have little difficulty in explaining this phenomenon, and will even find in it strong evidence to support that theory. It is unnecessary to enter on a reasoning so obvious.'

The variations of the magnetic needle, produced by a large portion of the summit of Glamich, form another topic, which Dr. Mac Culloch has treated with his accustomed ability: but they are represented more distinctly in the diagram than they can be described by words. Moreover, we can no longer refrain from imposing on ourselves a painful act of self-denial, by taking leave, for the present, of this instructive guide

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through a stormy island, which has been rarely explored by men of science. We shall not, therefore, attempt to put our readers in possession of his excellent remarks on the scanty appearances of coal which he had occasion to notice, on the geological history of the Lydian stone, and on his sagacious comments on statuary marbles, with a particular reference to those of Sky. — This paper is well illustrated by a geognostic map of the island, and by sections of the strata and veins that are described. The writer, however, never once alludes to a previous examination of the same island by Professor Jameson, of Edinburgh; a circumstance which is the more to be regretted, because the statements of these two geologists are sometimes at variance. Thus, Mr. Jameson makes repeated mention of wacke as occuring in large quantities, whereas Dr. Mac Culloch expressly says, *wacke is, I believe, totally unknown in this island.* In such cases, the discrepancy may sometimes be resolved by mutual explanation, and an exchange of definitions of terms.

On the Oxyd of Uranium, the Production of Cornwall, together with a Description and Series of its Crystalline Forms. By William Phillips, Member of the Geological Society. — The few crystalline modifications of this rare mineral are here distinctly defined, and exemplified by figures.

On the Geological Features of the North-eastern Counties of Ireland, extracted from the Notes of J. F. Berger, M.D. M.G.S. *With an Introduction and Remarks*, by the Rev. W. Conybeare, Member of the Geological Society. — Mr. Conybeare's Introduction comprizes a rapid geological view, first, of the *Mourne Mountains*, in which the exterior transition-chains extend greatly beyond the primitive nucleus of granite and hornblend rock; secondly, of the *Primitive Chain of Londonderry*, consisting chiefly of mica-slate; and, thirdly, of the *Basaltic Groupe.* These divisions of the district to which Dr. Berger's observations refer, it is alleged, may correspond respectively with the transition, Grampian, and trap-chains of Scotland, of which they may be only continuations. At the same time, this *hard union* between the two islands would require to be established on more minute and satisfactory evidence than its ingenious advocate could, with propriety, introduce into this summary sketch.

With regard to Dr. Berger, he dissects his appropriate field more in detail, and investigates the prevailing rocks under the fourfold division of *Primitive, Transition, Floetz-rock*, and *Flœtz-trap.* Without demurring, at present, to the accuracy of this partition of his subject, we shall only beg leave to observe that the members of each section, and their general aspect and structure, are usually so analogous to the facts which prevail in similar formations in other regions, that we may be excused for treating this paper with much more brevity than it would otherwise deserve.

The granite of this territory, which approaches to that which the Wernerians conceive to be of more recent origin than the primitive, is either granular or porphyritic; the former sometimes containing small reddish garnets as an accidental ingredient, and the latter more commonly crystals of hornblend. More than two thirds of the mica-slate, which prevails in the primitive district, may be termed talcose; and the rest is of the common sort: but both varieties, it is presumed, are destitute of garnets: the remainder is granular and micaceous lime-stone, of different colours, usually subordinate to the mica-slate, but sometimes alternating with it. The primitive traps here enumerated and described are common hornblend-rock, hornblend-slate, green-stone, green-stone-slate, and hornblend with mica. Of the green-stone-slate, it is remarked that attempts have been made to quarry it for the purpose of roofing; and that, if the works were conducted with spirit, they might supply as good slate as that which is imported from Wales. The remaining members of the primitive series are porphyry and syenite.

The transition-rocks which are particularized are gray-wacke, gray-wacke-slate, lime-stone, trap, (including three modifications of green-stone,) and the old red sand-stone. This last has its station assigned in this division rather than among the secondary rocks, because, in one instance at least, it appears to alternate with gray-wacke. It is mentioned that 'Lord Londonderry has caused this formation to be bored to the depth of 500 feet, in the fruitless search for coal on the east side of Strangford Lough near Mount Stewart; if to this depth the height of the sand-stone on Scabro hill be added, it will give from 800 to 900 feet as the known thickness of this formation. The greatest length of this district of sand-stone does not exceed six or seven English miles. It appears to rest on gray-wacke.' We are informed, however, in a note, that the sand-stone-formations of this territory are arranged in a most problematical manner. — In some parts of the gray-wacke-formation, have been found flinty and drawing slate, and lead and copper ores.

Of the floetz-rocks, the designations are, lime-stone, underlying the coal-formation, coal-formations, sand-stone-formations, lias, green sand-stone, or mulattoe, and chalk. Their courses are analyzed with considerable minuteness; and the account of the lias-clay is supplied from the joint observations

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of Mr. Buckland, and the editor, Mr. Conybeare. We purposely omit, however, any farther notice of these detailed descriptions, as far as they correspond with known appearances in the coal-districts, or in the chalk-formations of England. The ensuing particulars are probably less notorious, even to some of our geological readers:

> 'The average thickness of the chalk-formation in Ireland may be estimated at between two and three hundred feet; the upper beds seem to have been partially re-dissolved before the basaltic mass was deposited upon them, since along the line of junction a confused aggregation of chalk-flints exists, imbedded in the lowest member of the trap-deposit, which is usually a bed of ochreous bole: the flints so imbedded have usually themselves acquired a red tinge, apparently by percolation, from the oxidated iron of the stratum in which they lie.
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> 'This aggregation of flints, bedded in red ochreous bole, forms at Macgilligan a stratum thirteen feet thick. It may be observed, also, near Larne and near Belfast, and seems indeed of almost universal occurrence.'—
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> 'The chalk is frequently traversed by basaltic dykes, and often undergoes a remarkable alteration near the point of contact; where this is the case, the change sometimes extends eight or ten feet from the wall of the dyke, being at that point greatest, and thence gradually decreasing till it becomes evanescent. The extreme effect presents a dark-brown crystalline lime-stone, the crystals running in flakes as large as those of coarse primitive lime-stone; the next state is saccharine, then fine grained and arenaceous; a compact variety having a porcellanous aspect and a bluish-gray colour succeeds: this towards the outer edge becomes yellowish white, and insensibly graduates into the unaltered chalk. The flints in the altered chalk usually assume a gray yellowish colour: the altered chalk is highly phosphorescent when subjected to heat.'

Under the head of flœtz-trap are comprized tabular and columnar basalt, green-stone, gray-stone, clink-stone, porphyry, bole, or red ochre, wacke, amygdaloidal wacke, and wood-coal. The simple minerals imbedded in some of the rocks of this series are granular olivine, augite, calcareous spar, analcime, mesotype, stilbite, chabasite, iron pyrites, glassy felspar, and chalcedony, which occasionally passes into semi-opal.

The magnificent colonnades of *Fairhead* and *Crosshill* are of green-stone, and are destitute of the regular articulations and neatness of form which distinguish the pillars of the Giant's Causeway: but they exhibit 'enormous prismatic masses, often quadrilateral, and these latter appear to be formed of a congeries of smaller prisms, aggregated in a manner which brings to the mind the clustered assemblage of shafts forming a Gothic column: the greatest length of these columns is not less than 250 feet; the green-stone is highly crystallized, the concretions being distinct and large, and contains augite. Slievemish, a remarkable mountain, which lies like a colossal land-mark in the middle of the county, is from its basis to its summit composed entirely of green-stone, thus forming a mass of nine hundred feet in thickness.'

Wood-coal occurs in seams which vary in thickness, from two inches to upwards of five feet; alternating with trap-rocks, in the centre of the basaltic area, and along the eastern shore of Lough Neagh. The ligneous texture, which is often remarkably distinct, seems to appertain to a species of fir. At Portnoffer, the external surface of some of the fragments of this substance is penetrated, to a certain depth, by small groupes of imperfectly crystallized augites. It is somewhat remarkable that a porphyritic district occurs in the midst of the great area of basalt: but the rocks which compose it, and which are specified in the *Addenda*, are reported to be of doubtful formation.

The notes on the alluvial depositions are scanty, and probably imperfect: but they apprize us of the occurrence of disseminated pieces of bituminous wood, of which the fissures are penetrated by silex, and even sometimes lined with quartz-crystals. 'It was once the general opinion that the waters of Lough Neagh had the property of petrifying, and that the quartz contained in the bituminous wood of Sandy Bay had been deposited from them. The experiments, however, made by Mr. Tennant during his stay at Belfast, appear to discountenance that belief, since he found no traces of silica whatsoever in the water of the lough.'

To Dr. Berger's communication are appended *Descriptive Notes referring to the Outline of Sections presented by a Part of the Coasts of Antrim and Derry, collected by the Rev.* W. Conybeare, M.G.S. *From the joint Observations of the Rev.* W. Buckland, M.G.S. *Reader in Mineralogy to the University of Oxford, and Himself, during a Tour in the Summer of* 1813.—As this paper is also accompanied by a tabular view of the heights of several stations, calculated from the level of the sea by barometrical measurement, the whole article may be regarded as an interesting geological delineation of a tract of country which cannot fail to invite the contemplation of every scientific observer.

On the Dykes of the North of Ireland. By J. F. Berger, M.D. Member of the Geological Society.—Some of the most important facts deducible from Dr. Berger's observations on sixty-two dykes are, that they seldom occur singly, but several within a comparatively short distance of one another; that their uniform bearing is from S. E. to N. W.; that they all cut the planes of the strata through which they pass at very considerable angles; that they rarely exhibit shifts in their direction; that they differ very much from one another in respect of width, which varies from a few inches to several hundred feet; that they sometimes rise to a very considerable height above the strata which they intersect; that their depth is unknown; that they are nearly vertical; that they are composed of the following substances, recited in the order of their most frequent occurrence, viz. trap and green-stone, with their associates, lydian-stone, flinty-slate, gray-stone, and wacke; that they are formed either of a number of diminutive and aggregated pillars, or of square rhomboidal pieces, piled on one another; that the mean specific gravities of the different sorts range between 2.45 and 3.14.; that they traverse both primitive and secondary rocks; that they have often had the effect of indurating the latter to some little distance from themselves; that they seem to be of a very different constitution from metallic veins; and that the mineral matters which they contain imbedded, in a greater or less quantity, are augite, in angular fragments, olivine, in disseminated grains, crystallized glassy felspar, compact felspar, in distinct rounded concretions, radiated zeolite, green soft steatite, in distinct concretions, iron pyrites, calcareous spar, carbonate of lime, mixed with the trap, glassy quartz, in distinct concretions, sulphate of barytes, and plates of mica. — It is observed that, 'whatever date and whatever agents we are disposed to assign to the origin of dykes, their uniformly vertical and nearly parallel positions evince that both they and the mountains which they intersect have not undergone any modern disturbance beyond superficial abrasion, but that they remain in the same situation as at the remote period at which they were formed.'

From the appendix to this article, extracted from the correspondence of the late Rev. George Graydon, it should seem that a considerable analogy obtains between the dykes of Monte Somma, in Italy, and those of the north of Ireland.

Some Remarks upon the Structure of Barbadoes, as connected with Specimens of its Rocks. By Joseph Skey, M. D. Physician to the Forces. — Dr. Skey bears ample testimony to the almost uniformly calcareous character of the composition of Barbadoes; which is unlike, in this respect, to the constitution of most of the West-India islands. A great part of the island seems to consist of stages or terraces of coral rock; and the specimens to which he refers are chiefly madrepores.

Outlines of the Geology of Cambridgeshire. By the Rev. J. Hailstone, F.R. and L.S. Woodwardian Professor in the University of Cambridge. — The upland parts of this county consist of chalk-hills, being a portion of the great chalk-formation which traverses the island from Dorsetshire to the Yorkshire coast. On some of the highest hills, near Cambridge, horizontal layers of gravel and loose stones, resting immediately on the chalk, have been lately discovered. Their prevailing material is a pale blue, or light gray variety of flint, with numerous traces of the alcyonium or other similar bodies in its substance. — The details of this deposition are succeeded by a mineralogical analysis of Harston-hill, by Mr. Warburton. By far the greatest part of the hills of the county are composed of the lower beds, or gray chalk, which contain no flints: but dispersed masses of radiated pyrites, in a globular or kidney form. It is considerably harder than the common chalk, is provincially denominated *clunch*, and is the material from which the best lime is burnt. As it endures heat, it is also used for the backs of grates, &c. It seems to pass, by degrees, into the *gault*, or stratum of blue clay on which it rests. At Ely, a concrete bed of siliceous sand, with small rounded fragments of iron-stone and quartz-pebbles, varying in thickness from eight to twelve feet, overlies the gault, and is conjectured to be an alluvial deposition. The organic remains, found in the chalk and clunch beds of Cambridgeshire, are generally analogous to those which occur in the other districts of the chalk-formation.

Some Observations on a Bed of Trap occurring in the Colliery of Birch-hill, near Walsall, in Staffordshire. By Arthur Aikin, Esq. Secretary to the Geological Society. — From such an examination as circumstances permitted him to institute, Mr. Aikin infers, first, 'the existence of a bed of green-stone interposed between the usual strata of the coal-formation, but not co-extensive with them; and secondly, that the coal and bituminous shale, where they are covered by the green-stone but protected from actual contact with it by an indurated sand-stone a yard in thickness, differ materially in many respects, but chiefly in being deprived of bitumen, from those parts of the same beds where they are not covered by the green-stone.'

A Geological Description of Glen Tilt. By John Mac Culloch, M.D., &c. &c. &c. — As the perplexing rocks of this Highland-valley have proved the source of some sharp *tilting* matches among our northern geologists, the President of the

Society reports his examination with every possible attention to perspicuity; stating the phænomena which occur in the bed of the stream, and those on each side of it, in the form of three distinct lines or branches of his subject, and which in fact exhibit its peculiar features. He commences with the bed of the water; which, though sometimes situated in alluvial soil, and at other times inaccessible to observation, yet displays, on various occasions, the most confused mixture of granite, schist, lime-stone, quartz, &c. in fragments and contortions which indicate some local but powerful derangement of the original structure. Through this maze of anomalies, which defies the efforts of the pen and the pencil, we cannot presume to wander: but neither can we pass altogether unnoticed the fine specimens which it affords of tremolite and sahlite, and especially of statuary marble. The author's remarks and observations on the last-mentioned substance are well worthy of transcription, and of being perused in conjunction with his excellent commentary on the same subject in his paper on the Isle of Sky, already mentioned.

'The great mass of lime-stone which we shall hereafter find forming the whole of the left boundary of Glen Tilt is of a dark blue colour, with one or two exceptions which I have already described in the progress down the river. But the beds at this place are of various colours, and offer some of the most beautiful ornamental marbles which Scotland has yet produced.*

'The basis of nearly the whole is a white, rather larger grained, and crystalline marble. Beds of this variety occur in a pure state, and of considerable dimensions. But as all these marbles contain more or less of mica, with which substance they are inter-stratified, the white colour is seldom pure, being mottled with the slight gray tint which mica in similar cases always produces. It cannot therefore be considered as a statuary marble, since modern artists, acquainted with the beautiful stone of Carrara, have confined their labours to this more perfect variety. It is however perfectly applicable to various architectural as well as economical objects. A marble perfectly similar to it has lately been imported from America for the same purposes, to many of which its grayish hue and low tone of colour are more applicable than the dazzling white of Carrara. It is of a larger grain and a more compact texture than the Pentelic, with which the beautiful and interesting remains imported by Lord Elgin have lately made us acquainted. But the Pentelic marble, like that of Glen Tilt, contains mica, and

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'* Having pointed out the circumstance to the Duke of Atholl two years ago, quarries are now opened in them, by which the numerous varieties which they contain have been more completely brought to light than they could have been by the operation of a mineralogist's hammer.'

from this contamination arises its fissile nature, to which we unhappily owe so much of the injury which these wonderful works have suffered. When polished, the two can scarcely be distinguished from each other; the difference in the size of their grains disappearing, and the gray and watery stains, with the brown stripes of the micaceous laminæ, equally characterizing both.

'The discovery of statuary marble in the British dominions has been long a desideratum, but having already in the present volume discussed this question, I shall only briefly remark that, how much soever we may admire those wonderful sculptures by Phidias which have been executed in a marble scarcely differing in colour or quality from this of Glen Tilt, we are very well assured on examining the progress of art in Greece, that the marble of Pentelicus was only used in the deficiency of a purer and more uniform stone, and that it was abandoned when later discoveries had made the sculptors of that country acquainted with a better class of marbles. It would be a fruitless attempt to introduce the marble of Glen Tilt, or even those whiter varieties which Scotland produces, in competition with the exquisitely beautiful and easily wrought stone of Carrara, as long as these quarries remain accessible to us. For that higher class of sculpture on which the powers of genius are exerted, the proportion between the price of the wrought and unwrought article, (to use commercial phraseology,) is so unequal, that no difference in the value of the raw material can compensate for even the most trivial defects in its quality. But there remains even in the class of the fine arts a great number of uses to which the marble of Glen Tilt might with advantage be applied. Such are all those works in architectural decoration, in which absolute whiteness and uniformity of colour are not only unnecessary, but from their dazzling effect even injurious. The subdued tone and slight air of antiquity given to this marble by its stained and unequal colour would in these works render it of the greatest use. Its durability for the purposes of interior architecture must also be equal to that of Carrara, although there is little doubt that, when exposed to the action of the weather, it would like the Pentelic be liable to corrosion in those parts which abound in mica.

'Besides mica, steatite and noble serpentine are found mixed with the white marble. The colours of these substances offer various gradations from bright yellow down to the darkest sap-green. It is by these admixtures that the green and white marbles which form by far the largest portion of these beds are produced. The colours are so variously mixed, blended, and dispersed throughout the stone, that numerous varieties are the result; and these are further increased by the occasional presence of dark lead blue. This mixture of serpentine with marble is by no means uncommon in Scotland. On the contrary, it may be said that all the white marbles found in this country contain it in a greater or less degree. It is common in the white marble of Sky and in that of Balahulish. In that of Assynt it is more rare, but it occurs also abundantly in a white marble which I found in Glen Fernat, not far from the junction of the Brerachan with the Airdle. The well known ancient green marbles owe that colour to the same admixture, which indeed in the Egyptian green, and the Verde antico, is such that the calcareous matter is overpowered by the serpentine. The aspect of the green marble of Glen Tilt is however perfectly different from that of any marbles ancient or modern which have yet been wrought, and it offers therefore a valuable addition to the arts as well as a new commodity to the list of our mineral productions. I may add that, with a similarity of composition, many specimens bear a considerable resemblance both in character and colour to some varieties of the Cipolino of the Italians. Two other distinct varieties of marble occur where the calcareous beds terminate. The one is of an uniform ochre yellow, but of a much paler tint than the *Giallo antico;* the other is of a flesh colour graduating into dark blue, but neither of these beds is of great magnitude.'

The second line of the author's description consists of the granitic and quartzose structure of the right or northern ridge of the glen; and it is discussed with brevity, but not without interest. The confusion, observable in this department of the field of inquiry, is attributed to the discontinuous arrangement of the quartz rock, and the irregular protuberances into which the surface of the granite is formed. With respect to real relation, the quartz is superimposed on the granite. The latter frequently contains minute but well characterized crystals of sphene dispersed through it.

Of the third line, or south side of the valley, the details are likewise reviewed with due regard to dispatch; and they chiefly relate to the various aspects and bearings of the limestone, quartz, and schistose-rocks. In the quartz-rock of Ben Gloe, the contorted and conglomerate aspect of some of the beds seems to indicate that the quartz, like the schist, with which it is associated, has been in a flexible state.—In some of the rolled porphyries, found in the hills that bound the glen, Dr. Mac Culloch detected both pinite and oxyd of titanium, in a pulverulent and investing form. His own general deductions are thus recapitulated:

'The course of the Tilt may therefore be considered as bounded on one side by the outer edge of the granite-mass of the Grampians, and on the other by the primary rocks which follow and are superimposed on it. These rocks consist of an alternation of limestone, schist, and quartz-rock. The bed of the river is cut upon the line of contact of these two separate classes of rock, lying upon the surface of the granite, and against the elevated edges of the stratified rocks. Its action has in various instances exposed the junction of the granite with the stratified rocks, and these exposed parts are the confused mixtures in the bed of the river which have already been described. Although the river follows this line of junction in a general view, it does not follow it so accurately as always to keep the granite on its right bank, and the stratified rocks on its left. For this reason, the stratified rocks are sometimes seen crossing to the right bank, and even ascending high up the right side of the hill. The granite also crosses to the left in a few cases, but as it dips under the stratified rocks it is not found in the hill.—The sections which are given illustrate this variation and explain its cause.—The apparent alternation of the granite with the stratified rocks is also explained by attending to this arrangement.

'The granite-masses which extend beyond the general surface of the granite, and are found in the bed of the river, do not run to any extent through the mass of strata. It is therefore probable that they are not veins, but simply irregularities, of the granite.—The junctions of granite in the Tilt are not therefore the transit of independent granite-veins like those of Portsoy or Rona, but the interrupted portions of a continued line of junction between a great surface of stratified rocks, and an equally extensive but irregular surface of granite. Wherever this junction is found, a complicated disturbance of the whole rocks at the point of junction is seen, and small veins of granite are observed penetrating the stratified rocks.

'In these places of junction, the granite becomes so intimately mixed with the lime-stone as to alter its character; and wherever the granite is in contact both with schist and lime-stone, a similar mixture and transition between those two substances takes place.—In all other cases, the schistose and calcareous rocks preserve both their regular disposition and their ordinary chemical characters.'

Subjoined to the systematic exposition of this problematical territory, are some ingenious remarks on a singular fresh-water-formation of shell-marl, included in the same district; on the extensive effects of the agency of water on the rocks described; and especially on the very sensible disturbance of the magnetic needle by the granite, which forms the right boundary of the glen. This last-mentioned interesting fact suggests some important considerations for mariners, surveyors, geologists, and miners; who seem not, in general, to be fully aware of the frequency and extent of the disturbing influence of trap-rocks, porphyry, and serpentine, on the magnet.

Sketch of the Geology of the South-western Part of Somersetshire. By Leonard Horner, Esq. F.R.S. M.G.S.—The tract of country, comprehended within this sketch, is that part of Somersetshire which lies on the Bristol Channel, westward of the river Parret. The leading features of its geology are formations of greywacke and conglomerate, including beds of lime-stone, and of the red rock which extends over such a considerable portion of England. Several important points relative to the respective positions of the prevailing strata remain to be determined: but, when due allowance is made for the unfavourable circumstances under which Mr. Horner's examination was conducted,—particularly the quantity of vegetable matter which conceals large portions of the underlying rocks from view, and the great disturbance which the strata, in several places, seem to have undergone,—the results of his observations, which we have not room to specify, will not be deemed either scanty or trivial. Before he closes his report, he thus adverts to the remains of a forest now visible only at low water:

'The first appearance of this submarine forest is opposite Holford, about a quarter of a mile eastward of the place where a small brook runs into the sea. From this point to the mouth of the Parret there is a flat shore, which at low water is covered with a deep and almost fluid mud. The adjoining land is protected from the sea by a high bank of pebbles, composed almost entirely of the lyas lime-stone, and which increases in height near the place where the forest begins. Here there are seen at intervals patches of various dimensions raised six or eight inches above the sand; and upon digging into these they are found to consist of a dark brown matter resembling peat or decayed vegetable substances, mixed with a plant in which the structure is entire, with twigs and small branches of wood in a soft state, and containing here and there a few nuts. This brown matter rests upon a light blue very stiff and unctuous clay, and is of various thickness; in general from a foot to eighteen inches, but in one place I observed it two feet and a half without coming to the blue clay. Trunks of trees of a very large size are found at different intervals surrounded by the brown matter, and with their roots diverging as they grow, and fixed in the blue clay. The smaller twigs and branches in the brown matter, which look like the roots of underwood, also penetrate the blue clay, and the clay contains a great deal of that particular plant which appears the least decayed in the brown matter. Besides the trunks, there are stems of great trees sunk in the brown matter and strewed about, but without any uniformity of direction: some of these I found 20 feet long, and many of them had lateral branches attached to them. In many places, but particularly nearest the blue clay, the brown matter had a strong smell resembling that of bilge water.

'In order to ascertain whether the species of any of the plants contained in the brown matter could be made out, I sent specimens of it to my friend Mr. Brown of the Linnean Society, whose eminent skill in botany is so well known, requesting him to examine them. He informs me that the plant which was best preserved was the only one upon which he could pronounce with any degree of probability, the rest being too much decayed. It resembles the common *Sea Grasswrack*, but the leaves are so much broader that he considers it more probably the *Zostera Oceanica* of Linnæus: it is worthy of remark, that Dr. Smith, in his Flora Britannica,

tannica, when speaking of this plant, says, " Zostera Oceanica Linnæi, sui generis planta, nostras nunquam oras attigit."

' There are several sorts of wood, but it is difficult to say to what species they belong. I was accompanied in my examination of this forest by John Acland, Esq. of Fairfield, and some of his friends, who seemed to agree very generally that some of the trees were distinctly oak and yew. Of these, and particularly the latter, the texture is still entire; there are others which are soft and easily cut by the spade, but even these when allowed to dry become very tough and hard. The trunks seldom appear more than a foot above the ground, and they seem as if the stem had been broken off. Some of them however are smooth, as if sawed across, which has probably been the case, for a great deal of the timber has been carried away by the country people; and I was told by a farmer who had lived a great many years in the neighbourhood, that he recollects when there were stems standing erect above the height of a man, with lateral branches extending from them. This farmer some years ago ploughed up a part of the forest, and took away about forty cart-loads of the trees, part of which he used as timber, and the rest as fuel; but for the latter purpose it was very unfit, on account of the offensive smell it produces when burning. He shewed me a gate-post, which he said was one of the sub-marine trees; it had been put into the ground 40 years before, and was quite entire: he had no doubt of its being yew.'

Description of a Clinometer. By the Right Hon. Lord Webb Seymour, F.R.S. F.R.S.E. F.L.S. M.G.S.—We are here presented with a simple and ingenious contrivance for determining the position of the plane of stratification: but the instrument and its application cannot be satisfactorily understood without references to the accompanying plates.

A Sketch of the Geology of the Lincolnshire Wolds. By Mr. Edward Bogg, Land-Surveyor.—This short communication is chiefly valuable on account of an annexed map of the bassetings of the chalk, oolite lime-stone, and sand-strata, with the alluvial earth and hills of the same formation, and a view of the succession of the strata. A tabular enumeration is also exhibited of the varieties of seams that occur in the shale-stratum, to the depth of 103 yards; and from which it is reasonable to infer that coal may be found at no great distance.

On the Tremotite of Cornwall. By the Rev. W. Gregor.—The substance here described, and which is by no means of frequent occurrence in the southern parts of the island, is found both in a compact and a crystallized form in a rock which approaches to the nature of serpentine, about three miles from Liskeard, and very near to the great road to Plymouth. The portions of tremotite, which Mr. Gregor submitted to analysis, yielded silica, 62.2, lime, 14.1, magnesia, 12.9, 12.9, oxyd of iron, 5.9, water, 1, and manganese and soda, a trace.

Some Observations on the Salt Mines of Cardona, made during a Tour in Spain, in the Summer of 1814. By Thomas Stewart Traill, M.D. M.G.S. — The notoriety of these quarries of rock-salt unavoidably deprives Dr. Traill's communication of the interest that is derived from novelty: but it possesses the more solid merit of superior distinctness and accuracy. It seems that this mass of native salt rather fills up a valley than constitutes a mountain; that it is of singular compactness and purity, accompanied, as in Cheshire, by red clay and sandstone, but not by gypsum; and that it is worked, on a very languid scale, under the strict vigilance of the government. The brine-spring, which flows from the foot of the great precipice of salt into the Cardonero, carries along with it, during the rainy season, such a quantity of salt as to kill the fish in that river. 'This assertion rests upon the authority of Bowles, an able naturalist; but he undoubtedly was led into error when he asserted, that the waters of the Cardonero at some leagues below the mines yield no trace of salt: from which he inferred that salt may, *by motion*, be converted into earthy matter. At Manresa, which is about twenty miles below Cardona, I tested the water of the Cardonero by nitrate of silver, which indicated the presence of an unusually large portion of muriate of soda.'

Description of a New Ore of Tellurium. By Professor Esmark, of Christiania, Foreign Member of the Geological Society. —This newly-discovered modification of tellurium-ore is of a whitish tin-hue, has a perfectly foliated fracture, a strong metallic lustre, considerable softness and heaviness, and occurs coarsely disseminated and crystallized in perfect hexagonal plates, striped on the edges, in the Orndal copper-mine; where it is accompanied by copper-pyrites, and a small intermixture of sulphuret of molybdenum.

An Account of the Swedish Corundum from Gellivara, in Lapland. By C. T. Swedenstierna, of Stockholm, Foreign Member of the Geological Society. —We learn from the history which attends the description of the mineral in question, that its crystals are small, and by no means frequent in the many specimens of Gellivara ore which the author had occasion to examine. His notices of the characters of this variety of Corundum are followed by some interesting remarks on the position and contents of the Gellivara mines.

To this volume is annexed an ample list of donations of books, minerals, &c. to the collections of the Society. We purpose to take an early opportunity of noticing the first part of the succeeding volume, which has just reached us.

ART. III. *Travels in Beloochistan and Sinde;* accompanied by a Geological and Historical Account of those Countries; with a Map. By Lieutenant Henry Pottinger, of the Honourable East-India Company's Service; Assistant to the Resident at the Court of his Highness the Peishwa; and late Assistant and Surveyor with the Missions to Sinde and Persia. 4to. pp. 423. 2l. 5s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1816.

THE magnificent account of the kingdom of Caubul lately published by the Hon. Mountstuart Elphinstone, and reviewed in our Number for May last, may be compared with an epopea, of which the Travels of Lieutenant Pottinger were destined to form an episode. Why they have been dilated into a separate work, of nearly equal splendour, instead of being stationed in the appendix to that publication, is not obvious. The jealousy entertained at Calcutta of Bonaparte's views on India prompted both enterprizes: but the explorer of Caubul marched into the land with dazzling publicity, while the examiner of Beloochistan glided through it in versatile disguise; — the one unpacks the colossal telescope of imperial vigilance, — the other hides his spying-glass in a walking-stick.

Lieutenant Pottinger was accompanied by Captain Christie, in his undertaking to visit Beloochistan; and, as local reasons rendered a concealment of their object and purpose desirable, they procured letters of credit as horse-dealers, and in that apparent capacity departed from Bombay. They touched at Porebunder on the coast of Guzeratte; a country which still deserves a more minute examination, and of which the antient dialect of the people should be brought to the record of a copious vocabulary: since some antiquaries take this delta of the Indus to have been the original station of the Phœnicians of the antient world, who, about the time of Solomon, came up the Red Sea, and established a port of trade at Ezion-geber. The mouth of the Indus is described, and the bay of Sonmeany, where the fleet of Nearchus assembled. Here the travellers landed, and proceeded on camels.

Bela is the first place of importance. It was reached on a holiday, when horse-races were celebrating, and many persons of distinction galloped on camels by the side of the horses; much hospitality was shewn to the strangers by the Jam, or chief; and every facility was afforded for proceeding up the mountains to Kelat. So cold was the weather at the beginning of February, that the mushks, or leathern bags of water provided for the journey, became lumps of ice.

Kelat, described in the third chapter, is the metropolis of Beloochistan, and is therefore called *the city*. Here the travellers hired for themselves, in one of the suburbs, a house, to which a spacious stable-yard was attached. The city is commercial in its general character, and may be compared with the larger towns of Swisserland. The houses are mostly of wood, plastered; and every story projects over the one below, so that the garret-windows almost meet, although the street is wide enough at bottom. The bazar, or sheltered market, is well supplied both with food and wares; and a spring of excellent water flows through the town, the source of which is so abundant that it turns several water-mills, before it runs a quarter of a mile. Among the welcome luxuries of the place are mentioned dried apricots; the stones of which are taken out, and the fruit is then exposed repeatedly to the sun: it keeps for many months, but requires to be steeped in cold water for about three hours before it is eaten. The winter and the summer are peculiarly distinct in this climate, and the intemperance of each season is conspicuous; the dresses of the people therefore undergo a corresponding alteration. — Four distinct classes of inhabitants are specifically described in the fourth chapter, the Belooches, the Hindoos, the Afghauns, and the Dehwars. Games on horseback form a frequent exercise of the gentlemen. Their funerals conclude with hospitable repasts, which give them an appearance rather of revelry than mourning. — The description of Kelat is continued through the fifth chapter; and here also we learn that an opinion of the medical skill of our travellers became to them a source of useful introduction.

On leaving Kelat, they proceeded to Nooshky: where they determined to separate, Captain Christie undertaking the more northern road through Herat and Yezid; and Lieutenant Pottinger agreeing to survey the central or more southern district. It was intended to meet at Kirman: but circumstances brought them again together first at Isfahan. Captain Christie was not destined to return to this country; being selected by his Majesty's minister for military service, and unfortunately killed in an attack made by a body of Russian troops on the Persian camp during the night of the 31st of October 1812. His untimely death is regretted by his friends, and by the public; and, though a journal of his route was found among his papers, and is given in the appendix, much of his observations had been trusted to memory and perished with him.

Lieutenant Pottinger's separate journey begins with the eighth chapter. Near Sarawan, and within sight of the bed of the river Bale, a remarkable cluster of monuments was discovered that had never before been described by any European. We extract the account.

'About four miles from our halting place, we, this evening, passed the remains of some very extraordinary tombs, built on the western bank of the river, about four hundred yards from it: they were of a quadrangular shape, and had each been surrounded by a low wall of curious open freestone work, which conveyed to me at the moment the idea of the meshes of a net stretched at one end into a conical shape: these walls enclosed an area of four or five square yards, and the entrances to them, as well as the buildings, fronted due east: there were several large mounds of earth and stones scattered over the desert to a considerable distance, which induced me to get off my camel, but as it was raining at the time, and I was but just able to walk, I did not stay to examine any of them minutely. I could discover no inscriptions, and it was in vain that I subsequently made strict inquiry with respect to these places, as I had not the good fortune to meet with any person who had seen them. All the satisfaction that my guide could give me was, that they were built in the time of the Guebres *, but that is the source, to which is ascribed every thing uncommon or inexplicable throughout this country, and ought not therefore to be implicitly credited; it is, however, probable that in this instance the conjecture was right: there was nothing whatever Mohummudan or Hindoo in the style, and if we remove the erection of them from those nations, it naturally rests with the Parsees † unless we choose to attribute it to a still earlier period. They were evidently very ancient, for notwithstanding the durable nature of the materials of which they were composed, they were every one mouldering and in a complete state of dilapidation. The most remarkable circumstance regarding them, if true, was pointed out to me by Moorad Khan, who informed me there was no stone of the same description (with that they were erected with) to be found in any part of the country, and added that it would be of no value, for the people of our days were incapable of executing such workmanship. I am still dubious whether these buildings were formerly sepulchres or places of worship; inside of each there was a raised mound covered with stone, which had, beyond a doubt, the appearance of a grave, but it is also possible that this was the altar for the sacred fire of the Atush Kudu ‡: their numbers speak, more than any other argument, to their having been cemeteries.'

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'* Infidels: so he styled the followers of Zoroaster.'

'† Parsee is the modern name for these people, it is distinct from Persians who are Moosulmans.'

'‡ A fire temple. The Guebres worship that element as an emblem of God. There are several Atush Kudus in India. At the city of Yezd in Persia, which is distinguished by the appellation of the Darûl Ebadut, or Seat of Religion, the Guebres are permitted to have an Atush Kudu (which they assert has had the

sacred

The various horrors of a Persian desert are depicted with impressive detail in the ninth chapter: a well occasionally serving to define the length of a stage, and the direction of the way. Kullugan, Dizuk, and Gull, are names of villages described in the tenth chapter; together with a tribe of Loorees, a sort of gypsies, who reject the doctrine of a future state and approve suicide, and who were met in this region. The district of Puhra is the chief topic of the eleventh chapter; in which a sudden discovery that the author is an European creates in the reader a great anxiety for his fortunes.

Lieutenant P.'s arrival at Bunpoor discloses the very high degree of favour with which Captain Grant was remembered in this district. "Go down to the sea-port towns," said the chieftain, "and declare you know Grant, and you may have as much money as you choose to borrow;" and it was in consequence of being able to talk about Captain Grant, that the author, whose resources were beginning to fail, was assisted to proceed. There are certain traits of character which attach the man of nature, and which it is exceedingly important to seek in the diplomatic agents who are sent into an uncivilized country.

In the thirteenth chapter, the author quits Beloochistan, a little beyond Basman, where is a boiling well. The province of Kirman, into which he next entered, acknowleges the jurisdiction of Persia.

Chap. xiv. describes Nuheemabad, and Bumm; and the fifteenth relates to Kirman. This is an important provincial metropolis, and Lieutenant P. was induced to make some stay in it, with the hope of obtaining intelligence respecting Captain Christie from Heerat. The copious use of native Persian authorities gives to this and the ensuing chapter a high value in the eye of learning; and they exhaust the geography of the province. In the seventeenth chapter, the author proceeds to Sheeraz, so repeatedly celebrated by the classical poets of Persia, and thence to Isfahan, where he unexpectedly meets again with his original fellow-traveller. Captain Christie being soon afterward selected by his Majesty's envoy at the court of Persia as one of the officers to remain in that country, Lieutenant P. returned to Bombay, having descended the Tigris in boats, and embarked at Bussora.

Thus far the work consists of a journal, not remarkable for the number of striking objects which each successive day presents

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sacred fire in it since the days of Zoroaster) in their own compartment of the city, but for this indulgence they are indebted to the avarice, not the tolerance, of the Persian government, which taxes them at twenty-five rupees each man.'

sents to notice, but deriving a peculiar interest from the repeated dangers, romantic adventures, and hair-breadth escapes of this very ingenious and spirited wanderer. A young Ulysses, he has every where some pretended character to assume, some deceptious disguise to wear, some fictitious part to perform; yet every where a natural power of ingratiation, and the inherent force of superior accomplishment and talent, surround his poverty and rags with the attachment and admiration of all who approach. A wide district, new and strange to geography, has thus been amply explored, and vividly described; while traits of manners especially abound, which give to these travels a value analogous to those of Volney. Few Englishmen have hitherto displayed a plasticity which could so entirely adopt an oriental exterior, and amid such variety of intercourse habitually conceal the European.

The second part of this volume contains a geographical and historical memoir of the countries visited, which is branched into nine chapters. Much of the geographic information, scattered chronologically in the tour, and there given in the order in which it was acquired, is here digested under heads, and repeated with neater condensation; while the historical matter is concise, but new. A summary account of the province of Sinde occupies the eighth, ninth, tenth, eleventh, and twelfth chapters; it is somewhat episodical, and relates an especial mission to Sinde, of which the author was not the chief personage. Sinde is described as the Ægypt of the east; and perhaps it furnished to the African Ægypt its first civilized inhabitants. Its form of government is very singular, and is thus characterized:

> ' After the decease of Meer Futtuh Allee, his three brothers divided the revenues of their branch of the family into four quarters, two of which were allotted to Meer Gholam Allee, as the principal Umeer, and one to each of his younger brothers. The sum thus disposed of then amounted to thirty-four lacs, and thirteen thousand rupees, but it is greatly increased since that period; and in consideration of the extra allowance granted to Meer Gholam Alee, he was bound to defray the permanent civil and military expences, which are, however, very trifling, beside providing a double share of the tribute due to the King of Kabool, in the event of payment being enforced.
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> ' At the same time that these regulations were framed, with the concurrence of the three brothers, they entered into the most extraordinary compact, of governing the province conjointly; under the designation of the Umeers or rulers of Sinde; and on the death of Meer Gholam Allee, the senior of the three that were on the Musnud when the mission was at their court, his eldest son took the lowest seat in the triumvirate, while his two brothers each

ascended

ascended a step. It is impossible to conjecture how long this curious system will be preserved; it seems at present very firmly established, but its basis is in such direct opposition to every idea that the experience of ages has taught us to form of Asiatic governments, that we may justly presume it cannot be of long endurance; and in all human probability it will eventually terminate in the ambitious projects of one of its members, who may be tempted to usurp the unconditional supremacy by the imbecility of his colleagues in power.'

The court of Hyderabad is represented as being very splendid.

An appendix preserves an abstract of Captain Christie's journal after his separation from Lieutenant Pottinger at Nooshky; of which the description of Heerat forms the most prominent and valuable segment.

' 18*th April.*—We mounted early and marched twenty-five miles before we breakfasted at a small Zearutgah, after which eight miles more brought us to the city of Heerat, the intermediate country bare except in the vicinity of the different villages.

' The road from Furrah to Unardurru being good, and not hilly, it is an easy stage of twenty-one miles although no water intermediate. From Unardurru to Okul is one long and very tedious march, and usually made by Karwans in two; the road is rough and lies between hills, and though Okul is out of the way, by going that route we had less to fear from robbers. From Okul the road is tolerable, but the water very brackish at the first stage, and none farther on till you come to Plessy; thence to Heerat you have no water except a little salt well at six miles; this last is a long stage, being thirty miles to the Zearutgah, and eight from thence to the city.

' The city of Heerat is situated in a valley, surrounded by lofty mountains, and contiguous to the northern ridge, which separates it from the country of Bokhara. The valley extends at least thirty miles, from east to west, and is about fifteen broad, watered by a river rising in the mountains and running through the centre; it is highly cultivated, and the whole face of it is covered with villages and gardens. The approach to Heerat from the Zearutgah, lies four miles between orchards, with a capital road; at the end of this road we came to the river, over which there is a very ancient bridge, four hundred yards in length, built of burnt brick, and said to have been erected by an oil woman at her own private expence; it is now, however, miserably decayed, and will soon tumble to pieces unless the government repair it. Previous to the building of this bridge the communication between the city and country was yearly cut off, on the melting of the snow in the mountains, and the consequent swell of the river. When we had passed the bridge, we rode four miles through the suburbs along a good road, to the city gate.

' The city covers an area of four square miles, and is fortified by a lofty mud wall, with towers and a wet ditch; in the northern face is a citadel elevated on a mound above the wall; this is a small square castle with towers at the angles, built of burnt brick, the whole in line with the wall, and encompassed by a wet ditch, over which is a draw-bridge. Beyond this, there is also a recently constructed outer wall and dry ditch. The city has a gate in each face, and two in the northern one; but on the whole it is very contemptible as a fortification.

'From each gate bazars lead to the "Char Soobh," or market-place, in the centre of the town, which are spacious and well lined with shops; the principal one extends from the south gate to the Gunjee Bazar, or cattle-market, in front of the citadel, and is covered in with a vaulted roof the whole length. These streets and the Char Soobh are so filled with the crowd of people on Thursday (the bazar day) as to be almost impassable. On either side as you go along are large spacious Suraés, where the merchants have their Kothees, or factories; the city is well supplied with water, every Suraé having a Houz, or cistern, independent of the public ones on either side of the bazar streets. The meanest building, in appearance, is the residence of the prince, of which you see no more than a common gate-way, over which is a wretched building, and in front an open square, with galleries in the centre, for the Nukurah Khana, or kettle-drums.

'The Musjidé Jooma, or Friday's Mosque, was once a grand building, comprizing an area eight hundred yards square, but this is fast going to decay. The private buildings in Heerat are by no means in this state, for no city has less ground unoccupied, and none, for its extent, can boast of a greater population. Heerat and its suburbs are computed to contain above one hundred thousand inhabitants, of whom ten thousand are Uffghans, the rest are Moghuls, a few Jews, and six hundred Hindoos. The Hindoos are here highly respected, and alone possess capital. The government is sensible of their value, and they have in consequence much influence. They live in the best Suraés, and have gardens outside, but do not venture to bring their families with them to this city.

'Heerat is a city of more trade than perhaps any other in Asia under a native government; it is called by distinction the Bunder, or port, and is the emporium between Kabool, Kandahar, Hindoostan, Kashmeer, and Persia, Bagdad, &c. From the four former it receives shawls, indigo, sugar, chintz, muslin, bafta, kincob, hides, and leather, which are exported to Mushid, Yezd, Tehraun, Bagdad, and Kirman; receiving in return, dollars, tea, sugar-candy, china-ware, broad-cloath, chintz, silk, copper, pepper, and all kinds of spices, dates, shawls, numuds, and carpets. The hides which are imported from Hindoostan return a profit of one hundred per cent. nett; indeed, the whole trade is uncommonly advantageous to any one possessing capital. The currency here is that of Muhmood Shahee rupees, but accounts are kept in Kureem Khanee, at one hundred and twenty-five per hundred Muhmood Shahees.

'The staples of Heerat are silk, saffron, and assafœtida, which are exported to Hindoostan; the silk cloths are not equal to the manufacture of Persia. The gardens are full of mulberry trees reared solely for the sake of the silk worm, and all the plains and hills round Heerat, particularly to the westward, produce assafœtida. It grows to the height of two or three feet, the stem two inches in diameter, and the head, when ripe, is yellow and resembles a cauliflower; the Hindoos and the Beelooches are fond of it, they eat it by roasting the stem in the ashes, and stewing the head of it like other greens. It still, however, preserves its fœtid taste and smell.

'The gardens of Heerat are extensive; the Oordooé Bagh, belonging to the Prince and Baghé Shahee, planted by Tymoor Shah, (this being his favourite seat,) are the only public ones, and now only attended to for their annual produce, which is sold in the Bazar. Leading to the latter is an avenue one mile in length, between fir trees; and adjoining are four minarets of a mosque that was intended for the tomb of the Imam Moosa Allee Reza, who, however, was disappointed of his visit to Heerat by dying at Mushid.

'The villages in the neighbourhood of Heerat are numerous, and nothing can exceed the fertility of this valley; wheat and barley are most abundant, and fruit of all kinds amazingly cheap. When I was at Heerat, the horses were all at Bagh, up a place one stage over the mountains, for the benefit of the fine grass procurable there: They are generally half bred, but the merchants from Bokhara bring Toorkumanee horses, that sell in proportion to their height. The most celebrated breeder in this country is Booniad Beg of the tribe of Huzaree; he resides in the mountains towards Mushid, and has large herds of horses and mares: his colts are highly prized, and are often sold for from one to four thousand rupees each. The tolls at Heerat are two rupees on every camel load going out of the city, and one anna, or sixteenth of a rupee on every twenty rupees' worth of merchandize sold in it. This is levied from the purchaser by the Suraédar or tax-gatherer, who farms the tolls from government. Although the toll on camels appears so very trivial, it is avoided by every means, to a large extent, of which I had an opportunity of knowing two or three instances. The revenues are estimated at four and a half lacks of rupees, and are levied on the Suraés, shops and gardens; a part is taken in kind, or grain and cattle; and from the total amount the prince pays fifty thousand rupees annually to the King of Persia.

'The government of Heerat is in the hands of the Shahzadah Hadjee Fejroozoodeen Khan, third son of the late Tymoor Shah, and full brother to the present Muhmood Shah. He is about fifty years of age, appears to take little active participation in public affairs, but leaves every thing to Hadjee Aga Khan, his minister. In the present distracted state of Khorasan, he endeavours to remain neutral, without incurring the displeasure of either of the contending parties. The prince has two wives, the one a Moghul lady, the other a daughter of Shakoor Khan Douranee, by each of whom he has two sons. Kasin Khan, the eldest, is a good looking young man about twenty-two years of age. The reins of government being in the hands of a Moghul excites a great degree of jealousy in the minds of the Uffghans, but the prince gives the former a decided preference over his own tribe, as he finds that the rapacious exactions of the former from the subject are more enforced to enrich his coffers than they could possibly be through his countrymen, who, being accustomed to free and independent tenure of the land, are not so likely to assist in that system of plunder for which the Moghuls are proverbial.

'The police of Heerat is strict, not so much for the sake of morality, as for the fines which come into government; and no one can appear in the streets after dark. This city is, of all others in Khorasan, celebrated for cheats, who allure the unsuspecting stranger into their houses to partake of an entertainment, and then lay him by the heels on a false charge of seduction of their female relatives, and breach of hospitality, for which the accused person may consider himself fortunate to escape with a mulct of five hundred rupees. On these occasions, they previously inform themselves of the state and condition of the person, and levy accordingly: half of this fine goes to the informer as a reward for his ingenuity, and the other half to the minister and government.

'I remained at Heerat nearly a month in my assumed character of a horse-dealer, and declared I should go to Mushid on pilgrimage, a common circumstance among people of that class, who visit this country. I deemed it expedient to announce this as my intention, being thereby furnished with an excuse for leaving Heerat at any time; and, what was to me of great moment, without encumbering myself with a number of horses, which I naturally said I could purchase on my return; by this means I only found it necessary to buy two during my sojourn there.'

This volume is altogether somewhat prolix, but contains a considerable fund of new particulars concerning countries hitherto almost inaccessible. A large and good map is prefixed, corrected by Lieut. P.'s own observation from older authorities; and farther partially improved by the help of the journals of Captains Grant and Christie, with the actual surveys of Captain Maxfield.

Art. IV. *A History of the Jesuits*; to which is prefixed a Reply to Mr. Dallas's Defence of that Order. 8vo. 2 Vols. 1l. 4s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1816.

THE society of the Jesuits has been pronounced by a deservedly admired historian * to be "the most political and best regulated of all the monastic orders," and that

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* Robertson, Charles V. Vol. ii.

"from which mankind have derived more advantages, and received greater hurt, than from any other of these religious fraternities." Allowing this to be true, it will not be uninteresting, nor unimportant, to consider the proportion which the advantages derived from this body of men have borne to the injury inflicted by them. As long as the world remains in its present state of imperfection, and the things which it contains continue to be subject to vicissitude, good will be found intermingled with evil, and evil with good; and it will be almost as impossible to experience the one in an unqualified and independent state, as it will be to enjoy the other without its concomitant portion of alloy. To effect a distinct separation of these two opposite qualities, so as to be enabled to form an accurate judgment how far, in any particular instance, liability to injury may be counterbalanced by the chance of benefit, is a task which seldom fails to recompense the pains of the inquirer, in proportion to the importance of the investigation itself. In prosecuting such a method of analysis with regard to the merits of the above-mentioned society, it will be requisite to examine the institution in its origin, its infancy, its progress, and at the period of its final establishment, before we come to consider the causes which led to its suppression, or the consequences which would be likely to accompany its future restoration.

We have before us, for this purpose, two publications; which, as a collision of opposite sentiments tends to elicit the truth, will be useful in aiding our conclusions on the matter in question. Of one of these, from the pen of Mr. Dallas, we have already presented an account to our readers, (Vol. lxxx. p. 413.) and his arguments in favour of the Society are combated in the other with some warmth of language and severity of reprehension. Mr. D.'s antagonist enters the lists by giving a history of the Jesuits, and prefixing to this history a reply to Mr. Dallas's defence of the order: but we were rather surprized at finding this introductory reply drawn out to such an unusual length as, together with an appendix subjoined to the second volume, actually to exceed by many pages the history itself. The writer, we suppose, must have felt that his talents, as well as his inclinations, lay principally in controversial discussion; and, having once attached himself to his prey, he was unwilling to let him depart without a due share of punishment.

"*Non missura cutem, nisi plena cruoris, hirudo.*"

While the one of these gentlemen describes the Society, both in its original designs and in its actual operations, as the uniform messenger of peace and mercy, — the instrument employed by a benevolent Providence for diffusing happiness to the afflicted, and knowlege to the ignorant, — the other views it as the organ of desolation and misery, and as the means of propagating the most pernicious errors in doctrine and encouraging the grossest iniquities in practice. The truth, as we have elsewhere intimated, may perhaps be fairly considered as lying between the opposite extremes; and, though certainly it would be far more consistent with our own ideas that it should be supposed to belong to the latter than to the former of these opinions, yet there are some few points in which we think the case is not yet clearly made out against the advocate of the Jesuits, and in which the arguments of his opponent are weak and inconclusive. These we may have occasion to notice more circumstantially hereafter: in the mean time, our acknowlegements are certainly due to the author of this history for his patient and diligent research, for the trouble which he has taken in collecting a great variety of useful and interesting facts, for the order in which he has arranged this mass of information, and for the steadiness and resolution with which he has endeavoured to uphold the truth.

When we perused Mr. Dallas's work, it did not escape our notice that he had exposed himself to just animadversion, not only on the score of general insufficiency in his mode of reasoning, but by a certain petulance of style and impetuosity of language; which is too apt at all times to betray the disputant into erroneous conclusions, and to incapacitate his mind for the perception of truth. Having learnt severity from the example of his adversary, the author of the present history, — of whom it cannot be said, as of the Grecian sage, *μέλιτος γλυκίων ῥεὲν αὐδὴ*, — is very properly energetic in maintaining his own cause, and in exposing that of Mr. Dallas. He is moreover generally found to argue with greater solidity; and, though in his zeal for victory he has occasionally incurred the charge of diffuseness, his pages will be found to have contributed greatly to the elucidation of truth. In the quantity of evidence which he has brought forwards for this purpose, it will be natural to suppose that some inequality is perceptible in point of strength; in a great variety of arguments, all tending to one point, some will be more and others less conclusive: but, if the generality of them be not deficient in force and perspicuity, the question under debate needs not be injured by a partial degree of weakness. Having said thus much of the reply, we shall beg leave to retire for a while from this field of controversy; and, leaving Mr. Dallas to fight his own battles, (a task to which we deem him fully competent,)

petent,) we shall proceed to an examination of the history of the Jesuits; stating the case to our readers in the several points of view in which it is susceptible of being considered; and enabling them as well as ourselves to draw conclusions from the premises.

After a suitable preamble relative to the first origin of this singular institution, the history details some of the leading particulars in the life and character of its founder. A quotation from this part of the work may serve to introduce it, and to exemplify the style of its author:

> 'Ignatius Loyola, the patron and founder of this Society, was born in Spain.* He followed at first the profession of arms. Thrown upon the world by this occupation, he gave himself up to his passions; and the Jesuits, who have written his life, observe that vanity and ambition were his ruling pursuits. In 1521, being then 30 years of age, he was at Pampeluna when the French besieged it, and had his right leg broken, which was unskilfully treated. During his cure he met with a life of the Saints, written in a romantic style; he read it, and was impressed by it. If we may believe the Jesuits, he received from Heaven, in the first years of his conversion, miraculous favours, visions, raptures, and ecstasies, from which he appeared to gain extraordinary illumination.† Pasquier, who witnessed the birth of the Jesuits, was not wrong in calling Ignatius one of the most subtle and skilful politicians that his age had produced; and this will plainly appear when the analysis of the government, statutes, and privileges of the Society shall be given. He had such a military genius, that, after his conversion, having had a dispute with a Moor, who maintained that Mary had ceased to be a virgin by becoming a mother, Ignatius regretted ‡ that he had suffered this blasphemer to escape, and pursued him in order to kill him: happily, the mule on which he was mounted, took a different road to that of the Moor, and hindered him from executing this pious design.
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> 'He soon obtained disciples; but, meeting with opposition, he determined to go to Paris. That great city is properly the cradle of the Society. After having experienced various obstacles there, which would have discouraged any other person, he set about forming new disciples; those whom he had had in Spain having deserted him. His first converts were Le Fevre, who had been his private tutor, and Francis Xavier, who taught philosophy in the University; he added to them afterwards Lainez, Salmeron, Bobadilla, and Rodriguez: in order to fix his new disciples irrevocably, he took them on the day of the Assumption, 1534, to the Church of Montmartre near Paris, where Le Fevre, who had lately become a priest, said mass to them, and gave them the sacrament in the sub-

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'* See his life by Baillet, and in the *Continuation of Fleury.*'

'† Baillet, section 6.'

'‡ See Baillet on the authority of Maffée and Bouhours.'

subterraneous chapel. After mass, the whole seven, with a loud and distinct voice, took a vow to undertake, within a prescribed time, a voyage to Jerusalem, for the conversion of the Infidels; to abandon every thing they possessed in the world, except what they should need for their voyage, and, in case they should be unable to accomplish this, to go and throw themselves at the feet of the Pope, to offer him their services, and to proceed under his orders wherever he might think proper to send them. At length they were joined by three other disciples, namely, Le Jay, Codur, and Brouet. They arrived in Rome in 1538: being assembled at the house of Quirino Garzonio, they agreed [*] that the Society should be established, as soon as possible, as a religious society, in order to prevent its being dissolved in future, and to enable it to extend itself in all places, and to subsist to the end of time. In spite of every obstacle which he encountered, he accomplished his object of obtaining the sanction of Pope Paul III. for his Order.[†] He had presented the scheme of the insitution to that Pope in 1539, who referred it to three cardinals for examination.

'Guidiccioni [‡], one of the Referees, a man of great merit and learning, strenously opposed this new institution; he even wrote a book to establish the reasons of his opposition, and his authority determined the two other Cardinals..

'During this examination, an event took place, which was the origin of the great credit which the Jesuits afterwards obtained at the court of Portugal. John III. King of Portugal, wished to send missionaries into India, and directed his ambassador at Rome to select ten for the purpose: that ambassador was Mascarenhas [§], who was closely connected with Ignatius, who is even said to have been his Confessor: he then asked him for some of his companions; Ignatius gave him Rodriguez and Bobadilla; the latter having fallen ill, Xavier was substituted.

'Mascarenhas carried these two missionaries with him into Portugal: they departed from Rome, 15th March 1540, above six months before the approbation of the institution. Rodriguez remained in Portugal, and Xavier went to India. Ignatius now engaged for unlimited obedience to the Pope; Paul III., flattered by this promise, began to shew himself more favourable. At length, upon the most urgent solicitations, and upon assurances of the most entire submission,, Paul III. by a Bull of the 27th of September, 1540, confirmed the Institution. Upwards of forty Bulls have followed, in which they have procured exemptions from all jurisdictions,

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'[*] See Baillet.'

'[†] This Pope, after he had founded the Order, struck two medals; one inscribed "*The Gates of Heaven are opened;*" and the other, "*The security of the Roman people.*" How far that event contributed to promote "Glory to God in the highest, and on earth peace, good will towards men," let the present History shew.'

'[‡] See *Continuation of Fleury*, Vol. xxviii. Lib. 139.'

'[§] See *Continuation of Fleury*, and *Life of Xavier*, by Baillet.'

jurisdictions, as well ecclesiastical as civil; and from all tithes, and imposts on them and their property.'

So singular being the origin of this institution, which appears to have owed its birth to the wild and enterprizing genius of an ambitious fanatic, it becomes interesting to reflect on its rapid march to wealth and influence; and to trace, from beginnings apparently so insufficient, the secrets of its gigantic growth. The visions of the enthusiast, unless aided by very peculiar circumstances, seldom terminate otherwise than in the entire abortion of his designs; — what the peculiar circumstances in this instance were, which lent their assistance so opportunely to this rising establishment, it is easy to perceive. In the first class of them, we should be disposed to reckon the protection which it received from the Holy See. "The order of Jesuits," says Hume, "was erected when the court of Rome perceived that the lazy monks and mendicant friars, who sufficed in times of ignorance, were no longer able to defend the ramparts of the church, assailed on every side; and that the inquisitive spirit of the age required a society more active and more learned, to oppose its dangerous progress." This we apprehend to be the principal secret with regard to the rapidity with which the objects of the institution, and the schemes of its founder, were brought to maturity. It rose with the Reformation, its rival and opponent in all its views, doctrines, and interests; and whatever served to weaken the cause of the former, and to impede its progress, tended in a similar ratio to strengthen the pillars of the papal throne. It became, therefore, the manifest interest of the court of Rome to throw as large a portion of influence as it could into the hands of a society so favourable to its views and interests, and so formidable to those of its adversaries. To combat the industry, to weary the patience, and to restrain the influence of the early reformers, the feeble efforts of the Catholic priests were found wholly insufficient; and the labours of men confined within the precincts of the monastery, or the cells of the cloister, were of little avail in counteracting the energies of minds deeply impressed with a conviction of the truth, and zealous in maintaining and diffusing it. For this radical defect, which threatened the total extinction of the papal authority, the new society proposed a remedy. Its members were to be men of the world; active, busy, and enterprizing; trained up from their youth in habits of industry, and early accustomed to the management of worldly affairs and the duties of their future station. For the peculiar adaptation of its laws and constitution to the increase of its power and influence, the Society is indebted not so much to its founder himself as to his earliest disciples. The minds of Lainez and Aquaviva appear to have been particularly suited to this important task; and to the subtle forethought and crafty policy of these men, we may perhaps fairly refer the exact and well contrived arrangement of all the internal regulations of the establishment: while the military genius of Loyola may be supposed to have given birth to that uniformity of discipline and subordination, under which its members have invariably acted.

A short space of time was sufficient to convince the sovereign Pontiff of the wisdom of sanctioning the institution; and no farther evidences of its utility appeared requisite than such as were now daily exhibited to the eyes of that monarch, in the zeal and readiness with which his cause was espoused, and the means of deliverance which the Society seemed to have afforded to the Christian church from the dangers of heresy and rebellion. We find, accordingly, that the Jesuits soon became the greatest favourites at the court of Rome. Lainez and Salmeron were commissioned to appear at the Council of Trent as the advocates of the papal cause:—those who were sent on foreign missions, to prosecute the objects of the Order in distant countries, carried with them the authority and the influence of the Papal sanction;—others, finding their way with considerable address into the several courts of Europe, were received there with every kind of attention and regard, as the lawful ministers of a master to whom kings themselves owed allegiance;—and every monarch, who, at that time, from either political or religious considerations, paid court to the see of Rome, rivalled his fellow-sovereigns in granting them his patronage and advancing their pretensions. "In less than half a century," says Robertson, (whose account of the order is principally taken from Monclar's *Compte rendu au Parlement de Provence,*) the Society obtained establishments in every country that adhered to the Roman Catholic church; its power and wealth increased amazingly; the number of its members became great; their character as well as accomplishments were still greater; and the Jesuits were celebrated by the friends and dreaded by the enemies of the Romish faith, as the most able and enterprizing order in the church."

It has, however, been often thought and asserted that these offers of friendship and service from the Society, which were at first view so flattering and apparently so advantageous, were in reality little else than the treacherous exertions of one who seeks to raise himself on the ruins of his

rival; and that self-interest and self-aggrandizement were t
primary as well as the ultimate object of all the proceedin
and designs of the Order. This is indeed a point of son
consequence, which the author of the History before us appea
particularly anxious to establish. He endeavours to pro
that the boasted missions of the Society into foreign countrie
instead of tending to diffuse the doctrines or the spirit
Christianity among rude and unenlightened nations, have
reality been productive of a contrary effect; that, jealous
all authority except their own, the Jesuits have proved then
selves, by precept and example, absolutely hostile both
piety and episcopacy; and that, while they have boasted
being the friends and supporters of both, they have in fa
discouraged the culture of the one and resisted the establis
ment of the other.

'Urban Serry, Secretary to the Congregation *de propagan*
Fide, thus exposed to Pope Innocent XI. the state of Christiani
throughout the world: "The Holy Apostolic See" (says h
"resolved, in order to promote religion in China, Cochin Chin
Camboya, Tonquin, and other kingdoms, to send them bisho
to instruct the natives, and ordain priests, it being impossible
send labourers from Europe in sufficient numbers." After stati
that this was what Pope Alexander VII. had done, in appointi
Palu bishop of Heliopolis, Lambert bishop of Beryta, and C
rolandi bishop of Metellopolis, as his Vicars-Apostolic in the
countries, Serry continues: "The Congregation is well awa
what serious opposition they experienced from the Jesuits on th
arrival in India: they could not endure to submit to these Vica
Apostolic; they seemed to have lost a large portion of their rep
tation, although they had once been directors of the people, a
arbiters of their inclinations—a people who had known how sup
rior these bishops were to the Jesuits in probity and integrity.
was on this account that the Jesuits began to decry them in pub
meetings, and even in the churches: they proclaimed in circu
letters that they would neither acknowledge nor obey them; th
occasioning a grievous schism: they caused it to be believed,
their address, that the bishops were intruders and *heretics*; a
that all the sacraments administered by them, or their pries
were invalid and sacrilegious; and reasoning from this princip
they maintained in their sermons, that it would be better to
without the sacraments than to receive them at their hands. Su
was the pretext for the opposition and persecution of the Jesui
they caused some to be carried to the Inquisition at Goa; and ma
use of the Heathen rulers for banishing others." The remaind
of the letter enters into a detail, as affecting as it is interesting,
the violence, the artifices, and the revolts of the Jesuits, not en
against the bishops, but against the Popes who had given to t
General of the Jesuits the most strict orders to compel the me

bers of the Society to acknowledge and submit to the authority of these bishops; but all to no purpose. *

'For more than two hundred years, in which those bishops, and others after them, were sent into India to establish the Catholic faith, the Jesuits did not cease to revolt against them and the Pope.

'The secretary of the Congregation, established upon the subject of the Vicars-Apostolic in China, expresses himself thus, in a memorial presented to that congregation, on the 6th December, 1677: "Your Excellencies will have learnt from statements and letters transmitted by confidential hands, and from the last accounts on the subject, of which you have already received a copy, that the Jesuits' persecutions of the Vicars-Apostolic and their missionaries have always continued from the commencement to this hour; that the Jesuits have never ceased to thwart and obstruct the mission in the kingdoms of Tonquin, Cochin China, Camboya, and Siam; in a word, in every place where these Fathers resided. The Jesuits have not contented themselves with persecuting the Missionaries of the Holy See in the East: they have done the same in Europe; at the court of France, and that of Spain; at the court of Portugal; in Flanders; and even at Rome: so that this persecution is not the work of individuals alone, but of the whole Society, and there is little doubt that the General of the Society had his share in it. † They have not been content with exciting persecution in India, but have rendered it general in all parts of the Christian world." The memorial then details the facts in proof of this statement, and the means employed by the Jesuits in fomenting and maintaining so many persecutions, calumnies, and intrigues; of which it observes, their Excellencies had the proofs in their possession; and the persecution is traced to three motives of policy—"The first is, that the Jesuits will endure neither superior nor equal wherever they may be, and that their privileges were useless to them when the Apostolic-Vicars arrived: the second, a desire to conceal from Europe their proceedings in those countries; above all, the commerce which they have always carried on, and wish to continue, in spite of the Papal prohibitions, of which they were apprised: and the third, a resolution to prevent the ordination of native clerks and priests, in order that they might always remain at the head of those churches." ‡

'Such a design could only have originated in pride and avarice, which desire to have neither superior nor equal, and to be at

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'* See the whole extract in *La Morale Pratique*, Vol. iii. chap. 23. sect. 17.'

'† See, in the Memorial itself, those facts which shew the privity of the General of the order. The Jesuits who were accused produced the orders of their General, to which, in fact, they had done no more than conform themselves.'

'‡ See this memorial at the beginning of the 7th Vol. of *Anecdotes sur les Affaires de la Chine*.'

liberty to amass, without judges, witnesses, or opponents, immense riches, by means of commerce, which is forbidden to ecclesiastics, and, above all, to the religious orders. The Jesuits have not scrupled, in furtherance of their views, to oppose and persecute bishops and others; and, when it answered their purpose, to destroy them. The Society has persecuted, in the East Indies, Palu and Marin, both bishops of Heliopolis; Lambert and Aleonissa, both bishops of Beryta; Didier, bishop of Auran; Bourges, bishop of Ascala; Maigrot, bishop of Conon; Lionne, bishop of Rosalie; Cięé, bishop of Sabula; Visdelon, a Jesuit, the bishop of Claudiopolis; Fouquet, also a Jesuit, and bishop of Eleuteropolis; La Beaume, bishop of Halicarnassus; and several Vicars-Apostolic, sent out by the see of Rome, to govern the churches in India. The Pope's legates, Cardinals de Tournon and Mezzabarba, were not spared; but they actually murdered the former; and Fabre, the superintendant of the mission to Cochin China, received the most injurious treatment at their hands.* '

In the year 1643, the Jesuits claimed to be admitted as masters of arts into the University of Paris: but that University naturally refused her honours to persons not educated under her auspices; and the Jesuits persisting in their claim, as a privilege to which the Order was intitled, an appeal was made to the regal authority: when the University published in her defence some severe animadversions on the Society in two treatises, *An Apology for its own Body, and Observations on the Memorial of the Jesuits to the King and Council.* These productions are quoted in the volumes before us, as evidence of the *immorality and casuistry of the Jesuits;* and some curious and singular particulars are here detailed, though the charge may perhaps be in some degree overstrained:

' In the Observations, (after threatening to publish a statement of the doctrines and practices of the Jesuits, already prepared,) they declare themselves ready to prove, that " there is no article in religion which the Jesuits have not corrupted, and do not daily corrupt, by erroneous novelties: that the scholastic theology has been depraved, by the dangerous opinions of their writers, who have had the approbation, or at least the connivance, of the whole Society; that Christian morality had become a body of problematical opinions, since their Society had undertaken, by a general understanding, to accommodate it to the luxury of the age; that the laws of God had been sophisticated by their unheard-of subtleties; that there was no longer any difference between vice

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' * All the above facts are abundantly supported in the Accounts of the foreign Missions, *Les Anecdotes sur les Affaires de la Chine,* Fabre's Letters, and a variety of publications upon China: a very good abridgment of these several persecutions may be found in *Les Jesuites Marchands.*'

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and virtue; that, by a base indulgence, they promise impunity to the most flagrant crimes; that there was no conscience, however erroneous, which might not obtain peace, if it would confide in them; and that, in short, their doctrines, inimical to all order, had equally resisted the power of kings and the authority of the hierarchy."

'The University also published *Les Vérités Académiques* (a work of above 350 pages), in order to shew that the public would sustain no injury by the suppression of jesuitical instruction. In this work, the defects of the Jesuits' system of education, both in the higher and lower classes, are exposed with much force and ability, as also their mode of teaching philosophy and theology both scholastic and moral, with their errors in the government of the souls confided to them, and the faults of their public preaching.

'With regard to the excesses of the Jesuits in point of morals, the University observes, that it is the vice of the whole Society, and the universal spirit of the Order, that all who are not entirely ignorant of their manner of conducting themselves know well how flexible they are, as occasions arise, and that they are not more steady than the times and the circumstances by which they are governed.

'It was precisely at the time that the Jesuits boasted in their memorial to the King, of their usefulness in public instruction, and of the injury that would ensue from the loss of it, that they inculcated through their professor of moral theology, Hereau, the most abominable maxims, which he taught, *vivâ voce*, and which the students copied from his dictation. The University being informed of this, sent their rector with an assistant on two separate days, and seized the writings which were dictated by Hereau, and which were legally authenticated as such.

'Among the abominations which they contained on the commandment, "Thou shalt do no murder," the University selected some which it formally denounced to the Parliament, on 5th March, 1644; the first was as follows: "If I am slandered by false accusations before a prince, a judge, or persons of character, and I am no otherwise able to prevent the loss of my good name, except by killing the accuser clandestinely and in private, I may lawfully do it; and the same rule holds, even though the crime with which I am charged be true, provided it were concealed in such a manner, as that he could not legally prove it." Hereau simply required one condition, which was, that the accuser should be first warned to cease, and then, if he would proceed, *he might be killed, not openly, on account of the scandal, but secretly.* He further declared it lawful for a man of honour to accept a challenge, for fear of passing for a coward: he expressed himself in an ambiguous manner, respecting the lives of kings, not permitting *every one* to kill him who has *the lawful right* to reign, and who abuses his authority to the injury of the people. The University, in explaining the poison which lies hid under the words printed in italics, by the aid of the regicide docrines taught by the Society, shews that Hereau exposes, at least virtually, the lives of sovereign princes, to certain authorities, to whom he pretends that the public interests are confided; and that, according to what these Fathers have taught, in order to judge whether the authority of a ruler is legitimate, it is not less the proper duty of the Jesuits to advise upon that question, than it is that of physicians to take care in a time of pestilence that necessary remedies are provided.

' This infamous casuist further taught the lawfulness of females procuring abortion; but a regard for decency renders it impossible to report what he has laid down on this head. *'

The author then details a variety of other particulars relative to the proceedings of the Society in the different parts of the world in which it had established itself, particularly in China, Malabar, Aleppo, Syria, and its other Asiatic settlements; whence it would appear that its doctrines and views have been uniformly inimical to all legitimate government, ecclesiastical as well as civil, and the preaching of its members subversive of every sentiment of rational piety and sound morality. He then proceeds to argue a point which we cannot but consider as far more difficult to establish, viz. that the Society has been an enemy to learning in general. On this head, more want of strength is betrayed than perhaps in any other part of the work; the arguments of the author being unsatisfactory and unsupported; and proving little more than that the Empress of Austria, having determined to get rid of the influence of the Jesuits over the University of Vienna, confided into other hands the administration of its revenues and the regulation of its public discipline. A memorial to the Pope from Megazzi, Archbishop of Vienna, is also adduced as evidence that, owing to the paralyzing influence of the Jesuits, the whole system of public education in the University, together with literature in general, was falling to decay. Now, if we grant that this memorial was perfectly correct in all its statements, and that the Archbishop himself was an unprejudiced and disinterested witness, (concessions which others, perhaps, might be more loth to make,) still it by no means follows that, because the University was not at that time in a flourishing condition, therefore the Jesuits were altogether unfriendly to learning in general; or that, because some mismanagement, or some neglect, owing very possibly to temporary causes, had found its way into a school of learning over which they presided, therefore the views of the Society

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' * See the documents printed by the University in 1644, under the title of *Requêtes, Procès-Verbaux, et Avertissemens faits par ordre de l'Université pour faire condamner une Doctrine pernicieuse enseignée au Collège de Clermont.*'

itself were fundamentally hostile to the diffusion of science and the cultivation of letters. A similar argument might with equal reason be urged against Protestantism, if it were shewn that the students in either of our Universities had made a less proficiency in learning than was expected, or the opinion of the Archbishop of Canterbury had been given that the persons in authority had misconducted the affairs of the colleges over which they presided.

Having taken this view of the general proceedings of the Society throughout the several quarters of the world, where-ever its tenets have been promulgated, the author carries us back to the several particulars respecting the internal constitution of the Order. To the fundamental defects of the Institution itself, he very naturally imputes the growth of all that system of immorality and irreligion which his pages describe.

> ' It is to the Institute of the Jesuits, in common with their religion, that the radical vice and corruption of the Society are to be referred: it will appear, on inspecting this Institute, that it is, in fact, opposed to all the rules of authority, and civilized life; that its tendency is to erect the Society into a monarchy, or rather an universal despotism; to concentrate every thing within itself; to overthrow every obstacle, and to become the sovereign and absolute arbiter of all the dignity and wealth of the Christian world; in fine, to produce the whole of those evils which the history of jesuitism records.
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> ' The Jesuits, from the first, aspired to universal empire. They saw, indeed, the difficulty of their enterprise, and were aware how many had failed in the attempt: they observed, that when any particular monarch had made the experiment, every other potentate was raised against him, and opposed his designs: they therefore contrived a more skilful method; which was, to leave the sovereigns masters of their dominions, so long as they could domineer over those sovereigns, and create their own Vice-Kings, Vice-Princes, Vice-Dukes, in short their ministers; and thus become, in effect, the sovereigns of the world, by securing to themselves, insensibly, a species of moral government which should not offend the eye, but produce the same result.
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> ' As they could not prevail over other monarchs by force, in opposing them by sea and land, like other adventurers, they availed themselves of religion, as the most effectual instrument for restraining the minds and inclinations of mankind, and of governing them by a power apparently divine; which they employed in directing the consciences of kings, with a view to their own ends and interests. In order to their success, however, it became necessary to proceed in the least alarming and most attractive way; especially to conceal the artifices of their Institute; to give it an adaptation to places and circumstances; to extend it to members of other orders, conditions, and even religions, to laymen as well

as ecclesiastics, to the married and single, to bishops, popes, emperors, and kings. It became essential that the constitution of the Society should be monarchical and despotic; and that the whole exercise of the authority, and the direction of the revenues, should be united in the hands of a single chief; that all the members should be blindly dependant, in every thing, upon his absolute will, for their destiny, for the disposal of their persons, their conduct, and their property; for their doctrine, and mode of thinking on all points, in order that all might be one in their Society, and that the spirit of the head might be universally that of every member of the body; that no authority, temporal or spiritual, neither councils, bishops, popes, nor kings, should effect any thing against the Society, and that it should be exempt from all their laws, and from all dependance upon them; that the Society should unite in itself the privileges and prerogatives of all other societies; and appropriate to itself such rights as should give it superiority over all other bodies; that it should be able to bind to itself all individuals, and all bodies, without ever being itself bound in respect of them; and that it should always sport with obligations and engagements, according to the interests of the Society, and as circumstances should require: that money being the sinew of government, it should amass in the hands of its director, such possessions and wealth as were necessary to its extensive views; for which purpose the Institute should offer all proper facilities: finally, that, in order to attract the world within its own sphere, and to arrive at general influence, it should, on the one hand, soothe the great and the luxurious, by palatable doctrines, by a convenient morality, and by principles friendly to the indulgence of every passion; while, on the other, it should render itself terrible to every opponent, and even formidable to all who should refuse to join it; formed as it was upon maxims which enabled it to silence or destroy its opponents, and caused even crowned heads to tremble.

‘ It was, accordingly, upon the assemblage and union of such extraordinary principles, that the Institute was formed, as will hereafter be demonstrated; and it was in reference to such a junction, that the King of Portugal observed, in the Manifesto *addressed to the Bishops of his Kingdom, in* 1759, that “it was easy without any great wisdom or talent to foresee, and predict, that neither Christian nor civil society could subsist without a miracle, if the Jesuits were to continue.”—Let us hear, also, what he adds, on the double design of the Jesuits, in the formation of a monarchy composed of the Nostri, or their own members, and their labours to render it universal by the ruin of all others, under the designation of Externi. “It cannot be” (says he) “but that the licentiousness introduced by the Jesuits, of which the three grand features are falsehood, murder, and perjury, should not give a new character to the morals of the Externi (as the Jesuits call those who are not of their order), as well as to the internal government of the Nostri, or their own body. In fact, since these Religious have introduced into Christian and civil society those perverted dogmas, which render murder innocent, which sanctify falsehood, authorise perjury, deprive the laws of their power, destroy the submission of subjects, allow individuals the liberty of calumniating, killing, lying, and forswearing themselves, as their advantage may dictate; which remove the fear of divine and human laws, and permit a man to redress his own grievances, without applying to the magistrate; it is easy to see, without much penetration, that Christian and civil society could not subsist without a miracle. It was to be expected, that such pernicious maxims would most effectually dissolve the strongest bonds which could be formed, for preserving the commerce and union of mankind; that they would involve the world in continual opposition of sentiment and of interests, and excite perpetual and irreconcilable discord, instead of that harmony, without which human society must lose its consistency and security. On the other hand, these Religious, in order to promote the union and solidity of the Nostri, or their own Society, establish a sovereign government, so despotic and absolute, that the Provincials themselves cannot retard the execution of the General's orders by delay, or any other means. These Provincials, far from being able to communicate to those who are dependant upon them, the laws which regulate their decisions, are compelled, on the contrary, to conceal them with care; all the subjects of the Provincials, from the novices to the professors of all the four vows, having no right to demand a sight of these *Secret Laws*, nor to require to be informed of the crimes for which they are punished, or even banished: they are not even allowed to make the slightest reflection on these mysterious laws; they can never, in any way, avoid obedience to the orders of their superiors, however mortifying or opposed to their own opinions, without either exposing themselves to the severest chastisements, or being dismissed without remedy. The result has been, that, while the Jesuits have been able to introduce discord and disorder into the ranks of their opponents, they have themselves been all subordination to superiors, and union among each other; being held together by the co-operation of all their members under one great head, for the support of whose authority they are mutually pledged; and proposing to themselves, as their principal end, the erection of their own Society, upon the ruin and destruction of every other." '

The length of the above extract, which constitutes the greater portion of the twenty-fourth chapter, will oblige us to be more circumscribed in our notice of the succeeding sections. — In his developement of the internal frame of this singular establishment, the author lays some stress on that peculiar air of mystery which pervaded all the writings and regulations of the Order, and which appeared so essential to the advancement of their designs. Hence he infers that some purposes must have been entertained which rendered concealment necessary; yet what need could there be of secrecy, if the cause of the

Society could be identified with that of truth and virtue, and its sole objects were to disseminate religion and promote the best interests of mankind? The indefinite nature of the Institute, and the facility with which it could unite to itself men of all orders and professions, laymen, ecclesiastics, bishops, popes, emperors, and kings, is considered as a premeditated artifice in order to augment its influence, and to lay the foundation of its increasing power on a firmer and more extended basis. It is moreover clearly shewn that the constitution of the Society is purely monarchical, or in other words an absolute despotism; unlimited obedience being in every case due to the General, in whose supreme person are vested the whole authority, the entire property, the government, and the conduct of the institution at large, and of all its members individually. The mode which the Society adopted, to induce the different sovereigns of Europe to range themselves under its banners, — namely, that of proposing to them the bait of a milder doctrine, a convenient and lax morality, and principles flattering to all the passions of the human heart, — while at the same time it employed the most ignoble methods of making itself formidable to all who refused its yoke, encounters from the present author the severest animadversions; and such conduct is well exposed by a train of reasoning that is equally supported by its own solidity, and by the weight of those historical testimonies on which it rests.

It is time for us, however, to approach to a conclusion. The question, therefore, for determination is, as we stated at the outset of this article, what proportion have the benefits derived from the Jesuits borne to the injuries which mankind has received from them? Into this inquiry the author has not entered, for he seems to deny a part of the premises on which it is founded, viz. that any benefits have accrued from them: but we are not disposed to coincide with him entirely on this point, and are rather inclined to concede to the Society that to some merit it may be intitled, on the score of the encouragement which it has afforded to learning; since many of the profoundest scholars, the ablest theologians, and the acutest metaphysicians, have been educated within the pale of the Institute, and have been indebted to it for the literary eminence which they have attained. In America, moreover, we are willing to believe that the efforts of the Jesuits (independently of all consideration of the motives which induced them to make those efforts) were productive of decided utility. Other systems of religious instruction, it is true, might very probably have proved more beneficial, and the professors of other creeds might have attained equal or greater success, in reducing the natives of a barbarous country to a state of civilization and refinement: but, if it cannot be shewn that any such means of instruction were put in practice for the attainment of this beneficial end, the praise of having accomplished it must remain due to those by whose exertions it was effected. If better instruments might have been employed, the only questions are, why were they not? to whom are we to impute the crime of such negligence and delay? and to whom, on the other hand, must we ascribe the merit of zeal and earnestness in defending the cause which they had undertaken to advocate, and in so promptly executing the laborious work which they conceived it possible to accomplish? Such, and such only, is the limited portion of approbation which we are willing to concede to the Society, from a consideration of the benefits derived from it: but great and weighty will be the balance of evils to be placed in the opposite scale; so great, that an unprejudiced mind, we conceive, will find little difficulty in coming to a decision with respect to the claims of the Jesuits to the suffrages of mankind, either for their past exertions, or on the score of what is perhaps still more doubtful, the probability of future beneficial effects from their restoration.

That this question may be distinctly understood, we shall endeavour briefly to examine the merits of the Jesuits in a political and a moral point of view. If we consider them in the former light, the first idea, which presents itself to our minds, is founded on the danger of that notorious political evil, *the imperium in imperio*, the independent, self-constituted, and arbitrary authority which, though in their infancy unwilling to avow it, they at last claimed and exercised over all their followers. When we trace the progress of the Society through the different nations of Europe, we are unable to discover any political benefit which it has produced: it was the author of no wise regulations, it effected no reformation of manners, it reconciled no great dissensions, it established no general tranquillity; — on the contrary, after having for some time experienced and judged of its effects, the minds of far the greater portion of the European sovereigns were alienated from the Society, and those not merely of the Protestant party, but such as were zealously attached to the Roman Catholic church. The King of Portugal, conscious of the crimes which the Jesuits had committed within his dominions, shut up their schools, and banished them from his territories by public decrees. Genoa and Leghorn, imitating this example, refused them an asylum; and the republic of Venice and the kingdom of Naples did the

Roman Catholics, and of the decided objection entertained by all the bishops and clergy of the church of Rome against the reading of the sacred volume, '*without their own unscriptural comments and glosses*,' and then are subjoined 'A few Extracts from the Report of the Committee of the House of Commons, printed in 1816,' containing the examination of persons principally connected with the Roman Catholic schools in and about the metropolis: from which it appears to be a fundamental article of *discipline* in the church of Rome, that the Bible in the vulgar tongue should not be put into the hands of the absolutely unlearned; though it is the opinion of Mr. Butler, of Lincoln's Inn, that an arrangement might be made for teaching children *select portions* of Scripture, without committing to their own hands the entire volume of sacred truth.

After an impartial examination of this History, we cannot but consider it as very justly intitled to serious and attentive perusal. The matter is for the most part curious and interesting, and, although multifarious, by no means deficient in perspicuous arrangement. As we before intimated, the author has evidently bestowed on his volumes a considerable portion of accurate attention and deep research; he has been required to digest a great mass of evidence; and, though he has not always shewn sufficient discrimination in the selection of his testimonies, yet considerable ability as well as perseverance are displayed in the general concoction of the materials. Regarded as an historical work, however, it may perhaps be judged to betray too much of the spirit of controversy to rank highly in that department of letters; and the author is too frequently found wandering from his path as an historian, in order to aim a more decisive blow at his opponent, as a polemic.

ART. V. Mr. Moore's *Lalla Rookh, an Oriental Romance.*

[*Art. concluded from* p. 201.]

SUFFICIENT attention having been paid in our last Number to the tale of *the Veiled Prophet of Khorassan*, we have now to take notice of the second story in this volume, called *Paradise and the Peri*, which thus commences:

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> And as she listen'd to the Springs
>   Of Life within, like music flowing;
> And caught the light upon her wings
>   Through the half-open portal glowing,
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the same. The Empress of Austria closed the doors of the University of Vienna against them. Lastly, Henry the Fourth of France was so apprehensive of the pernicious influence which they exercised over the minds of his people, that he declared to the Duc de Sully that he must either admit them absolutely and without conditions, or reject them more absolutely than ever, and adopt every kind of severity towards them; "in which case," said he, "they will conspire against my life, and I shall be constantly exposed to the danger of being either poisoned or assassinated: for these persons have an intelligence and a correspondence every where, and possess peculiar facility in influencing others to adopt their opinions." It will appear, then, that the Society has given offence where it professed to lend support, and has either abandoned the interests or militated against the views of those whom it promised to befriend. If such have been the evils which it has produced among its earliest favourites and associates, where might be the boundary of its noxious influence, if it were again admitted, among its adversaries? Ought we not to consider it, moreover, as a corrupt branch of a corrupt tree; as the avowed enemy which it has hitherto been our glory to have defeated; as the offspring of a tyrant whose yoke we have boldly shaken off, and against whose arbitrary government we have successfully protested in the brightest periods of our history?

Reflecting, secondly, on the merits of the Society in a moral point of view, we cannot but fully agree with the author of this history that little would be gained, even if much were not lost, by any kind of coalition with an Institute of so equivocal and suspicious a character, whose steps have hitherto been so rarely marked by any thing but anarchy, corruption, and misery. An institute of human origin, purporting to be a friend to the cause of religion, and yet pretending (as it would seem) to set up its own views separate from those of Christianity,—its own interest as the object to which every other is to be sacrificed,—and its own regulations as of greater obligation than the laws of God and of truth,—can surely have but little claim to be ranked in the number of those salutary establishments which the wisdom of man has provided to controul the passions, to correct the errors, and to foster the virtues of his fellow-mortals.

On this point, our sentiments are so firmly fixed, that we are unwilling to widen the breach between ourselves and those who may differ from us in the above opinion by farther enlarging on it in this place; and we shall close our remarks with some general observations on the remaining portion of the volumes before us. It consists chiefly of an appendix to *the reply* to Mr. Dallas, and treats of the education of the

Roman Catholics, and of the decided objection entertained by all the bishops and clergy of the church of Rome against the reading of the sacred volume, '*without their own unscriptural comments and glosses,*' and then are subjoined 'A few Extracts from the Report of the Committee of the House of Commons, printed in 1816,' containing the examination of persons principally connected with the Roman Catholic schools in and about the metropolis: from which it appears to be a fundamental article of *discipline* in the church of Rome, that the Bible in the vulgar tongue should not be put into the hands of the absolutely unlearned; though it is the opinion of Mr. Butler, of Lincoln's Inn, that an arrangement might be made for teaching children *select portions* of Scripture, without committing to their own hands the entire volume of sacred truth.

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Such

of Oriental invention. Here, with true delight, we can compare the author, in some of his happiest passages, to the best poets of our country; and we can say, with perfect justice, that Goldsmith himself never expressed a more sweetly natural stanza (if it may be called by so dignified a name) than these four lines:

' 'Tis she — far off, through moonlight dim,
He knows his own betrothed bride;
She, who would rather die with him,
Than live to gain the world beside.'

Yet, notwithstanding all this sincerity, and self-devotedness, and excessive attraction, the spell is insufficient, and the Peri is again rejected from Paradise. Our readers will surely be anxious to know what *can* procure the pardon of the exiled wanderer. They shall be relieved from their anxiety; and, in their relief, they shall find supreme delight. The Peri flies away towards the temple of the sun at Balbec, — towards the sublimest shrine of the most beautiful of all superstitions:

' Cheer'd by this hope she bends her thither; —
Still laughs the radiant eye of Heaven,
Nor have the golden bowers of Even
In the rich West begun to wither; —
When, o'er the vale of BALBEC winging
Slowly, she sees a child at play,
Among the rosy wild-flowers singing,
As rosy and as wild as they;
Chacing, with eager hands and eyes,
The beautiful blue damsel-flies,
That flutter'd round the jasmine stems,
Like winged flowers or flying gems: —
And, near the boy, who tir'd with play
Now nestling 'mid the roses lay,
She saw a wearied man dismount
From his hot steed, and on the brink
Of a small imaret's rustic fount
Impatient fling him down to drink.
Then swift his haggard brow he turn'd
To the fair child, who fearless sat,
Though never yet hath day-beam burn'd
Upon a brow more fierce than that, —
Sullenly fierce — a mixture dire,
Like thunder-clouds, of gloom and fire!
In which the PERI's eye could read
Dark tales of many a ruthless deed;
The ruin'd maid — the shrine profan'd —
Oaths broken — and the threshold stain'd
With blood of guests! — *there* written, all,
Black as the damning drops that fall
From the denouncing Angel's pen,
Ere Mercy weeps them out again!

'Yet tranquil now that man of crime,
(As if the balmy evening time
Soften'd his spirit,) look'd and lay,
Watching the rosy infant's play:—
Though still, whene'er his eye by chance
Fell on the boy's, its lurid glance
  Met that unclouded, joyous gaze,
As torches, that have burnt all night
Through some impure and godless rite,
  Encounter morning's glorious rays.

'But hark! the vesper-call to prayer,
  As slow the orb of day-light sets,
Is rising sweetly on the air,
  From SYRIA's thousand minarets!
The boy has started from the bed
Of flowers, where he had laid his head,
And down upon the fragrant sod
  Kneels with his forehead to the south,
Lisping th' eternal name of God
  From purity's own cherub mouth,
And looking, while his hands and eyes
Are lifted to the glowing skies,
Like a stray babe of Paradise,
Just lighted on that flowery plain,
And seeking for its home again!
Oh 'twas a sight—that Heav'n—that Child—
A scene, which might have well beguil'd
Ev'n haughty EBLIS of a sigh
For glories lost and peace gone by!

'And how felt *he*, the wretched Man
Reclining there—while memory ran
O'er many a year of guilt and strife,
Flew o'er the dark flood of his life,
Nor found one sunny resting-place,
Nor brought him back one branch of grace!
"There *was* a time," he said, in mild,
Heart-humbled tones,—"thou blessed child!
When young and haply pure as thou,
I look'd and pray'd like thee—but now—"
He hung his head—each nobler aim
  And hope and feeling, which had slept
From boyhood's hour, that instant came
  Fresh o'er him, and he wept—he wept!

Blest tears of soul-felt penitence!
  In whose benign, redeeming flow
Is felt the first, the only sense
  Of guiltless joy that guilt can know.'

We confess that we love, as well as admire, the feeling and the fancy of this virtuous and exquisite description. It has been a theory of our earliest days, and it has not been contravened by the observation of our riper age, that one of the best employments of the very youthful intellect is the perusal of fairy-tales! "Hush—hush,"—we hear a whole host of greybeard objectors, male and female, shrieking out their horror at so uncalvinistic an idea! "What! fairy-tales! which have *no* moral—*no* religion—*no* meaning whatever!"—"My good Lady Riggledum," listen one moment to what we have to urge in defence of our opinion. Through the *imagination* only the heart of youth is to be reached: the *imagination* stands, as a sort of centinel, at the vestibule of the human mind, and admits or rejects any visitors that she chuses. What wise person, then, who knows the effect of bribing the porter, of *giving vails* to the guardian of the very inlet of the mansion, would hesitate to enlist the *imagination* in his service; to make the fancy the direct channel to the heart; and endeavour in future, as opportunity might occur and judicious choice decide, to fasten and to fix the ideas, *so introduced*, on the calm and calculating understanding?

> "As fancy opens the quick springs of sense." *Pope.*

However this may be; whether our metaphysics be right or wrong; we are sure that in Mr. Moore's present poem he has had a great *moral* object, and this infinitely more than compensates for any inferiority in conception or manner that may be observed in 'Paradise and the Peri,' when compared with 'the Veiled Prophet.' It is impossible for *any* object to be nobler than the praise of penitence; than the encouragement and the exaltation of the timid and the despondent, to

> "View their own heav'n, and vindicate their birth."

We come next to '*the Fire Worshippers*.' There is a species of poem which is entirely the growth of our own times; and we have often characterized it, in reviewing Mr. Scott's productions, (the first successful compositions in this novel manner,) as a sort of lengthened ballad, an attempt at varying and dignifying the *Chevy-Chase* style of our remoter ancestors. The modern metrical romance, as managed by our northern minstrel, is certainly little more than an amplification and an exaltation of the rude efforts of the earliest age of our national poetry. Within this limited circle, (a circle exclusively confined to a particular range of characters, manners, scenes, situations, and, we may even add, ideas,) the effect produced by the poet in question has been prodigious; and, allowing for the gross and now generally acknowleged defects of his phraseology and versification,—with instances of which, selected from all his writings, our unwilling censures have abounded, — still great indeed has been the pleasure conferred on a most numerous class of English readers, by such works as the Lay of the Last Minstrel, Marmion, The Lady of the Lake, &c. In the same track certainly, (with the exception of Childe Harold, and of his Satirical Poems;) but with a large increase of vigour and variety, Lord Byron has followed: but, far from binding his hearers down to Border-quarrels or Highland-histories, he has carried them over an ampler theatre of natural and moral description. He has dived perhaps deeper into the recesses of human depravity, and has wandered more widely in pursuit of the vagaries of human caprice: but we have still a thousand points of contact; the like interest excited for bold unprincipled characters; — the like veil of glory, and panoply of courage, thrown over selfishness, dishonesty, and cruelty. What are the *Marmion* and the *Bertram* of our own country but the *Giaour* and *Corsair* of other climes, warmed to higher atrocity either by the more daring imagination of their poet or by the land of their birth? That the moral, or rather immoral, result of adorning such beings with interesting attributes, — of not only failing to hold them up to detestation, but describing them as the lords and masters of the hearts of lovely and amiable women, — that the result of *this* system, on the male and female population of the day, must have been considerable, no person blest with a ray of reflection can possibly doubt. If, then, it really is a matter of importance what species of human being a popular poet endeavours to recommend to the interest and the attachment, even the momentary and partial attachment, of his readers, how shall we too strongly reprobate the prevalent practice of offering none but faulty, radically faulty, characters to our primary attention? In almost every popular poem of the day, epic, or dramatic, or insignificant, the true hero, the real object of interest, is a scoundrel, and the heroine a

——" something more
Than decency will suffer us to say."

When this is the case, criticism cannot endure to descend to longer parley with the minor blemishes of barbarism or discord, which may deface the grammar or perplex the rhythm of these irregular productions. It may regret, indeed, to see the metre of Gay's Fables, the octosyllabic verse, raised into the disproportionate consequence of a vehicle for lofty passions and agitating events; and it has this regret to express, but most thankful is criticism to Mr. Moore that he has enabled her to acknowlege that this is the *only* regret to be felt, in reading his noble poem of 'the Fire-Worshippers.' We could indeed have wished that so happy and even sublime a subject had been deemed worthy of the antient English couplet, or some one of the several majestic and harmonious stanzas which the great masters of our language have naturalized. It is to our ears *tantalizing* to hear animating sentiments conveyed, grand or pathetic scenes described, and high-souled characters brought before our eyes and home to our hearts, in a measure fit only for a tale of Swift, or a fable of Gay: fit confessedly, therefore, for most excellent things of their kind, but sinking beneath the weight of such truly epic or dramatic subjects as have been laid on it by the *sickly love of novelty*, which spoils the taste of our brightest men of genius in this bulky but debilitated AGE of English literature.

In our review of 'the Veiled Prophet,' a poem which we fear will be perused with feelings of admiration alone, and which will fall short of *any* moral purpose, we were cautious how we betrayed the course of the story; and we should adopt the same caution with regard to the interesting tale now before us, if it would not absolutely preclude the possibility of our quoting by much the most beautiful portion of the poem, we mean the catastrophe. Here the duty of not lessening the interest of an author's design, by injudicious developements, is superseded by the paramount claim on our justice to present the best passage in the work to our readers. Yet, though this may be the best passage in 'the Fire-Worshippers,' it has many companions which approach to its excellence; and, to bestow praise of a higher kind on this poem, we may venture to say that the whole spirit which it breathes is not only pure, lofty, and sacred, but that dullness and malignity themselves must combine their most matured and perfect powers to distort it into any thing objectionable. Here, indeed, is high and uncontrouled liberty, and from our hearts we thank the author for it: here, too, is unfortunate love: but the former is so honourable and so manly, the latter so tender and delicate, that a new interest is added to the oldest themes;

"*Et decorat veteres lux modò nata locos.*"

Hinda is the daughter of Al Hassan, an Arab Emir, of the most violent and despotic character. As to Hinda,

'Light as the angel shapes that bless
An infant's dream, yet not the less
Rich in all woman's loveliness;—
With eyes so pure, that from their ray
Dark Vice would turn abash'd away,
Blinded like serpents, when they gaze
Upon the emerald's virgin blaze!—

Yet, fill'd with all youth's sweet desires,
Mingling the meek and vestal fires
Of other worlds with all the bliss,
The fond, weak tenderness of this!
A soul too, more than half divine,
  Where, through some shades of earthly feeling,
Religion's soften'd glories shine,
  Like light through summer foliage stealing,
Shedding a glow of such mild hue,
So warm, and yet so shadowy too,
As makes the very darkness there
More beautiful than light elsewhere!

'Such is the maid who, at this hour,
  Hath risen from her restless sleep,
And sits alone in that high bower,
  Watching the still and moonlight deep.
Ah! 'twas not thus, — with tearful eyes
  And beating heart, — she us'd to gaze
On the magnificent earth and skies,
  In her own land, in happier days.
Why looks she now so anxious down
Among those rocks, whose rugged frown
  Blackens the mirror of the deep?
Whom waits she all this lonely night?
  Too rough the rocks, too bold the steep,
For man to scale that turret's height! —'

Hafed, however, the dreaded leader of the antient worshippers of the Sun, — those Ghebers, whose religious rites were the object of abomination and their persons of cruel tyranny to the Mohammedans, — unseen by the watchful Al Hassan, and unknown by the timid Hinda, *has* 'climbed that turret's height.' They love! and, 'as the course of true love never did run smooth,' they are as cruelly separated as any Romeo or any Juliet, by the hatred of any parents. After some delightful but painful *dialogues* between them, the dread discovery is partly made; and 'the Gheber belt that round him clung' is shewn by Hafed to Hinda, although she yet is left in ignorance that he is the very Hafed, the chief object of her father's horror. The manner in which this last fact is discovered is most striking; and the account of the subterranean passage by water to the hill of the Ghebers, with the battle which follows, among the rocks and woods leading to the highest summit, where the shrine of the Sun is placed, excels every description of the sort either in Mr. Scott's or Lord Byron's works. We feel so sure of our ground in this assertion, bold as it may appear, that we shall even risk it without a quotation, and only refer our readers to the passages in question; hastening on to that point of the scene in which

Hinda,

Hinda, having been taken captive by Hafed's followers, is now on her voyage homewards, dismissed by Hafed from scenes of danger and death, when his last retreat is betrayed to his Arabian persecutors by the treachery of a brother in arms.

Amid the precipices, and wooded rocks, and blood-stained waters below, the vast multitude of the Mohammedans are perishing under the exhausted sword of Freedom: but the dreadful cries of the combat have now been exchanged for the solitary yells of some wounded wretch, dashed from time to time down the darkness of the ravine:

'Those sounds — the last to vengeance dear,
That e'er shall ring in Hafed's ear, —
Now reach'd him, as aloft, alone,
Upon the steep way breathless thrown,
He lay beside his reeking blade,
  Resign'd, as if life's task were o'er,
Its last blood-offering amply paid,
  And Iran's self could claim no more.
One only thought one lingering beam
Now broke across his dizzy dream
Of pain and weariness — 'twas she,
  His heart's pure planet, shining yet
Above the waste of memory,
  When all life's other lights were set.
And never to his mind before
Her image such enchantment wore.
It seem'd as if each thought that stain'd,
  Each fear that chill'd their loves was past,
And not one cloud of earth remain'd
  Between him and her glory cast; —
As if to charms, before so bright,
  New grace from other worlds was given,
And his soul saw her by the light
  Now breaking o'er itself from heaven!
'A voice spoke near him — 'twas the tone
Of a loved friend, the only one
Of all his warriors, left with life
From that short night's tremendous strife. —
"And must we then, my Chief, die here? —
Foes round us, and the Shrine so near!"
These words have roused the last remains
  Of life within him — "What! not yet
Beyond the reach of Moslem chains!"
  The thought could make ev'n Death forget
His icy bondage — with a bound
He springs, all bleeding, from the ground,
And grasps his comrade's arm, now grown
Ev'n feebler, heavier than his own,
And up the painful pathway leads,
Death gaining on each step he treads.

Speed them, thou God, who heard'st their vow!
They mount — they bleed — oh save them now —
The crags are red they've clamber'd o'er,
The rock-weed's dripping with their gore —
Thy blade, too, HAFED, false at length,
Now breaks beneath thy tottering strength —
Haste, haste — the voices of the Foe
Come near and nearer from below —
One effort more — thank Heav'n! 'tis past,
They've gain'd the topmost steep at last.
And now they touch the temple's walls,
  Now HAFED sees the Fire divine —
When, lo! — his weak, worn comrade falls
  Dead on the threshold of the Shrine.
" Alas, brave soul, too quickly fled!
  And must I leave thee withering here,
The sport of every ruffian's tread,
  The mark for every coward's spear?
No, by yon altar's sacred beams!"
He cries, and, with a strength that seems
Not of this world, uplifts the frame
Of the fall'n Chief, and tow'rds the flame
Bears him along; — with death-damp hand
  The corpse upon the pyre he lays,
Then lights the consecrated brand,
  And fires the pile, whose sudden blaze
Like lightning bursts o'er OMAN's sea. —
" Now, Freedom's God! I come to thee,"
The youth exclaims, and with a smile
Of triumph vaulting on the pile,
In that last effort, ere the fires
Have harm'd one glorious limb, expires!

' What shriek was that on OMAN's tide?
  It came from yonder drifting bark,
That just has caught upon her side
  The death-light — and again is dark.
It is the boat! — ah, why delay'd? —
That bears the wretched Moslem maid:
Confided to the watchful care
  Of a small veteran band, with whom
Their generous Chieftain would not share
  The secret of his final doom;
But hoped when HINDA, safe and free,
  Was render'd to her father's eyes,
Their pardon, full and prompt, would be
  The ransom of so dear a prize. —
Unconscious, thus, of HAFED's fate,
And proud to guard their beauteous freight,
Scarce had they clear'd the surfy waves
That foam around those frightful caves,
When the curst war-whoops, known so well,
Came echoing from the distant dell —

Sudden each oar, upheld and still,
  Hung dripping o'er the vessel's side,
And, driving at the current's will,
  They rock'd along the whispering tide,
While every eye, in mute dismay,
  Was tow'rd that fatal mountain turn'd,
Where the dim altar's quivering ray
  As yet all lone and tranquil burn'd.

'Oh! 'tis not, HINDA, in the power
  Of Fancy's most terrific touch
To paint thy pangs in that dread hour—
  Thy silent agony—'twas such
As those who feel could paint too well,
But none e'er felt and liv'd to tell!
'Twas not alone the dreary state
Of a lorn spirit, crush'd by fate,
When, though no more remains to dread,
  The panic chill will not depart;—
When, though the inmate Hope be dead,
  Her ghost still haunts the mouldering heart.
No—pleasures, hopes, affections gone,
The wretch may bear, and yet live on,
Like things, within the cold rock found
Alive, when all's congeal'd around.
But there's a blank repose in this,
A calm stagnation, that were bliss
To the keen, burning, harrowing pain,
Now felt through all thy breast and brain—
That spasm of terror, mute, intense,
That breathless, agoniz'd suspense,
From whose hot throb, whose deadly aching
The heart has no relief but breaking!

'Calm is the wave—heav'n's brilliant lights
  Reflected dance beneath the prow;—
Time was when, on such lovely nights,
  She who is there so desolate now,
Could sit, all cheerful, though alone,
  And ask no happier joy than seeing
That star-light o'er the waters thrown—
No joy but that to make her blest,
  And the fresh buoyant sense of Being,
That bounds in youth's yet careless breast,—
Itself a star, not borrowing light,
But in its own glad essence bright.
How different now!—but, hark, again
The yell of havoc rings—brave men!
In vain, with beating hearts, ye stand
On the bark's edge—in vain each hand
Half draws the falchion from its sheath;
  All's o'er—in rust your blades may lie;
He, at whose word they've scatter'd death,
  Ev'n now, this night, himself must die!

Well may ye look to yon dim tower,
And ask, and wondering guess what means
The battle-cry at this dread hour —
Ah! she could tell you — she, who leans
Unheeded there, pale, sunk, aghast,
With brow against the dew-cold mast —
Too well she knows — her more than life,
Her soul's first idol and its last,
Lies bleeding in that murderous strife.

'But see — what moves upon the height?
Some signal! — 'tis a torch's light.
What bodes its solitary glare?
In gasping silence tow'rd the shrine
All eyes are turn'd — thine, HINDA, thine
Fix their last failing life-beams there.
'Twas but a moment — fierce and high
The death-pile blaz'd into the sky,
And far away o'er rock and flood
Its melancholy radiance sent;
While HAFED, like a vision, stood
Reveal'd before the burning pyre,
Tall, shadowy, like a Spirit of Fire
Shrin'd in its own grand element!
" 'Tis he!" — the shuddering maid exclaims, —
But, while she speaks, he's seen no more;
High burst in air the funeral flames,
And IRAN's hopes and hers are o'er!

'One wild, heart-broken shriek she gave —
Then sprung, as if to reach that blaze,
Where still she fix'd her dying gaze,
And, gazing, sunk into the wave, —
Deep, deep, — where never care or pain
Shall reach her innocent heart again!'

In the perusal of this unusually long quotation, we feel assured that our readers will find such unusual pleasure that they will not complain of its length. Here, however, we must close our extracts, and steadily refrain from the many tempting common-places which might be added to our list of similar passages in the first part of this article. Our office now demands its old unwelcome tribute of minuter criticism; when, having discharged that necessary duty, we shall make some more general remarks on the character of this attractive volume, " and bid farewell to gentle Lalla Rookh."

We suppose that the following trait, in the character of an unmerciful Arab, is not overcharged; yet it forcibly reminds us of the Hibernian story of a knife being stuck up to "*Lamprey*" (the maker's name at the end of the blade) in the "*bread-basket*" (the stomach) of an unfortunate fellow-countryman, by an enraged son of Erin.

' One ———
——who can *coolly* point the line,
The letter of those words divine,
To which his blade, with searching art,
Had sunk into its victim's heart.'

The grammatical ellipsis of the subjoined passage, be it ever so common, is still most unpleasing to the ear:

' But know—*'twas he I sought* that night.'

We may observe, cursorily, that a large portion of the tale of 'the Fire-Worshippers' seems to our fancy to have fallen into the manner of Lord Byron; more particularly as that manner has been exhibited in "the Bride of Abydos." Perhaps, some faint coincidence of scenery and situation may have contributed to excite this idea: but we must leave the curious and critical reader to judge of the fact. In Lord Byron's drama of Manfred, which we have just perused [*], which was written in a foreign country, and had not (we believe) reached England when Mr. Moore's work was in the press, we observe a striking similarity of idea in a passage relating to the record in Genesis, concerning the sons of God and the daughters of men. Indeed, this is not the only instance, by many, in which we have perceived the same vein of thought, and even an apparently studied imitation of style, in the brother-poets of the day. Mr. Moore, in this work, has, we imagine, frequently imitated Lord Byron; and Lord Byron, we are sure, of late has constantly *sunken* into the manner (if it can be called a *manner!*) of Mr. Wordsworth.

The nerve and spirit of this poem are rarely stretched, or inflated, beyond the true bounds of the sublime: but perhaps there may be examples in which the dangerously approximating borders of bombast are somewhat invaded. For instance, a battle in a storm at sea;

—— ' as if throughout
The elements one fury ran,
One general rage, that left a doubt
Which was the fiercer, Heav'n or man.'

Hyberbole is indeed the sin which most easily besets a writer who is eager in his search for novelty;—whose whole range of thought embraces a variety of unhackneyed objects; and yet we have great pleasure in observing that, both in language and imagery, Mr. Moore has a correctness of taste which effectually saves him from the prominent faults of several of his popular rivals. He seldom outsteps the proper and natural degree of energy that is required by the march of his subject; and, in Lalla Rookh, it is very possible to have the unmixed delight of reading page after page without a single check from expressions either loaded with too much ornament, or deficient in due elegance. Among the few examples of the contrary defects, we may perhaps quote the *extravagant* declaration of Hinda, that 'she would kneel at the shrine of *any* God, for the sake of Hafed;' which, although it may not mean much more than saying 'Paradise would be joyless without him,' as she does say on another occasion, is yet very different in style and manner, and revolts instead of pleasing even those who are best disposed and best qualified to sympathize with the sufferings of the noble patriot, and the gentle heroine, of this interesting story.

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[*] See the next ensuing Article.

We have given our opinion, in the former part of this article, concerning the poem which stands last in the collection, or *The Light of the Haram.* It is, in truth, very inferior to all the rest; the song of an American humming-bird, which rather dazzles the eye than delights the ear. Though we might quote a variety of passages, exemplifying both the splendour and the frivolity which characterize it, we shall only observe, in conclusion of our verbal strictures, that such a line as the following would throw ridicule on any scene:

> 'From the cool shining walks where the *young people* meet;'

and that the exclamation '*Good Heaven!*' is another of the familiarities by which Mr. Moore has debased his liberal and refined style of composition. Much, however, as we could wish that no line of this highly wrought volume could be found defective in accuracy or elegance, still more disposed are we to feel a depressing regret that, with the exception of 'Paradise and the Peri,' no great moral effect is either attained or attempted throughout the work. "*Quorsum hæc tam dulcia tendunt?*" To what purpose all this sweetness and delicacy of thought and language, all this labour and profusion of Oriental learning? What head is set right in one erroneous notion, what heart is softened in one obdurate feeling, by this luxurious quarto? Alas! with the exception which we have made, not one. Oh! that the author

> "Would stoop to truth, and moralize his song;"

would disdain the dull dislike of the times for all dignified and instructive writing; would chain their unwilling attention to a thoughtful and ennobling strain; and (as we before intimated) would redeem our country from the disgrace of yet wanting a legitimate epic poem!

ART. VI. *Manfred*, a Dramatic Poem. By Lord Byron. 8vo. pp. 80. 5s. 6d. stitched. Murray. 1817.

THOUGH we have always been forward in testifying our commendation of the high poetic talents of Lord Byron, we are equally sincere in now expressing a wish that he would for a time withdraw from public view, and curb, if not his facility of composition, at least his inclination to print. We offer this recommendation from a conviction that the pictures, which the bent of his genius prompts him to paint with so much strength and effect, are such that, from their very nature, they will pall on the appetite which they have pleased, and at last from mere repetition excite something like disgust. A few years may alter the tenor of the noble poet's train of thinking, and produce some new effusion, which, novel in its design and executed with all his native energy, may delight and surprise his countrymen: but this effect will be completely prevented by the unceasing recurrence of his publications, such as they have ever been: the interest hitherto excited by his poems will subside; and fashion, or public taste, will transfer its admiration to some new bard, though perhaps possessed of inferior merit.

We make these remarks, in connection with those which incidentally occurred in a previous page, (291.) the more willingly on the present occasion, because they are founded on the matter and manner of the noble author's productions, not on the decline of his poetic conception or composition: for in fact we consider the drama of *Manfred* as one of his Lordship's most successful efforts in point of vigour of imagination and power of expression; as more free than his writings usually are from occasional faults of language; and as exhibiting a hero not absolutely "*monstrum nullâ virtute redemptum à vitiis.*" It is to the spirit and character of his works, then, that we object; and much do we regret that he seems to be so little influenced by the remark of Cicero, which we recommended to his attention on the appearance of his "Juvenile Poems," on discarding the imitation of those who seemed to delight in lamentations of their existence. Why does he not more nobly enable himself to add the best reason for *non-conformity* to such practice, by deservedly appropriating the proud words of the Roman orator; "*quoniam ita vixi, ut me non frustrà natum existimem?*"

Notwithstanding the general praise which we have already assigned to this drama, and in spite of its power to excite interest, it has a *family-liability* to the objections which we have just offered; and it incurs the danger of fatiguing the attention by keeping it too long fixed on one character, for the hero of this is identically the hero of all Lord Byron's other poems. His Manfred is little more than his Childe Harold, his Lara, his universal man; as discontented, as mysterious, as terrific a compound of crime and of sentiment, with the additional power of calling up "spirits from the vasty deep" and various other places, which condescend to "come when he does call them."

The scene of this extraordinary production is 'amongst the higher Alps, partly in the castle of Manfred, and partly in the mountains.' We are introduced first to Manfred in a Gothic gallery at midnight, and the solemnity of the place and hour is heightened by the still more sombre picture of his thoughts. We shall quote some of the opening soliloquy, in order to make our readers acquainted with the hero.

'The lamp must be replenish'd, but even then
It will not burn so long as I must watch:
My slumbers — if I slumber — are not sleep,
But a continuance of enduring thought,
Which then I can resist not: in my heart
There is a vigil, and these eyes but close
To look within; and yet I live, and bear
The aspect and the form of breathing men.
But grief should be the instructor of the wise;
Sorrow is knowledge: they who know the most
Must mourn the deepest o'er the fatal truth,
The Tree of Knowledge is not that of Life.
Philosophy and science, and the springs
Of wonder, and the wisdom of the world,
I have essayed, and in my mind there is
A power to make these subject to itself—
But they avail not: I have done men good,
And I have met with good even among men —
But this avail'd not: I have had my foes,
And none have baffled, many fallen before me—
But this avail'd not: — Good, or evil, life,
Powers, passions, all I see in other beings,
Have been to me as rain unto the sands,
Since that all-nameless hour. I have no dread,
And feel the curse to have no natural fear,
Nor fluttering throb, that beats with hopes or wishes,
Or lurking love of something on the earth. —
Now to my task.'

This task is to call up the 'spirits of the unbounded universe,' whose appearance, it seems, he has the power to compel. After three invocations, a star is seen at the darker end of the gallery; and seven spirits sing respectively an appropriate strain, and then join in the following chorus:

' Earth, ocean, air, night, mountains, winds, thy star,
Are at thy beck and bidding, Child of Clay!
Before thee at thy quest their spirits are—
What wouldst thou with us, son of mortals—say?'

The songs of six of these Spirits have not much spirit in them: but the Mountain-Spirit sings with better effect:

' Mont Blanc is the monarch of mountains,
They crowned him long ago
On a throne of rocks, in a robe of clouds,
With a diadem of snow.
Around his waist are forests braced,
The Avalanche in his hand;
But ere it fall, that thundering ball
Must pause for my command.
The Glacier's cold and restless mass
Moves onward day by day;
But I am he who bids it pass,
Or with its ice delay.
I am the spirit of the place,
Could make the mountain bow
And quiver to his cavern'd base—
And what with me wouldst *Thou?*'

Manfred demands of them 'oblivion, self-oblivion:' but this, unfortunately, is the only boon which they cannot confer. He then desires to see them face to face, and the Spirit of his star appears in the shape of a beautiful female, which, on his attempting to clasp it, vanishes, and he falls senseless. A voice is next heard in a long and fearful incantation, in the style of the famed curse of Kehama, of which we shall quote only the concluding lines:

' By thy cold breast and serpent smile,
By thy unfathom'd gulfs of guile,
By that most seeming virtuous eye,
By thy shut soul's hypocrisy;
By the perfection of thine art
Which pass'd for human thine own heart;
By thy delight in others' pain,
And by thy brotherhood of Cain,
I call upon thee! and compel
Thyself to be thy proper Hell!

' And on thy head I pour the vial
Which doth devote thee to this trial;
Nor to slumber, nor to die,
Shall be in thy destiny;
Though thy death shall still seem near
To thy wish, but as a fear;
Lo! the spell now works around thee,
And the clankless chain hath bound thee;

O'er thy heart and brain together
Hath the word been pass'd — now wither!'

This incantation was included in Lord Byron's last publication, "The Prisoner of Chillon and other Poems;" and, by the intimation prefixed, it appears that this "Witch Drama," as it is there designated, was begun some years ago.

The opening of the second scene is in better taste. A pleasing and pathetic melancholy pervades the sentiments uttered by Manfred as he wanders alone on the Alps, which makes us doubtful whether most to pity the mind that is a prey to them or to admire the power of expressing them so well; and they shew a capacity in the poet (for it is ever impossible wholly to disunite Lord Byron and his hero) not only for the most refined enjoyment but for superior virtue. We have not room for the whole, but we must not omit the following lines:

'How beautiful is all this visible world!
How glorious in its action and itself;
But we, who name ourselves its sovereigns, we,
Half dust, half deity, alike unfit
To sink or soar, with our mix'd essence make
A conflict of its elements, and breathe
The breath of degradation and of pride,
Contending with low wants and lofty will
Till our mortality predominates,
And men are — what they name not to themselves,
And trust not to each other. Hark! the note,
[*The shepherd's pipe in the distance is heard.*
The natural music of the mountain reed —
For here the patriarchal days are not
A pastoral fable — pipes in the liberal air,
Mix'd with the sweet bells of the sauntering herd;
My soul would drink those echoes. — Oh, that I were
The viewless spirit of a lovely sound,
A living voice, a breathing harmony,
A bodiless enjoyment — born and dying
With the blest tone which made me!'

This soliloquy is closed with Manfred's determination to rid himself of life: but, when in the act of springing from the cliff, he is seized and retained by a Chamois hunter, who conducts him in safety to his cottage. There the Second Act opens with a scene of much force, in which Manfred alludes to 'some half-maddening sin;' and, in answer to a natural exclamation of his host, 'Alas, he's mad!' he says,

'I would I were — for then the things I see
Would be but a distempered dream.
'*C. Hun.* What is it
That thou dost see, or think thou look'st upon?

‘ *Man.* Myself, and thee — a peasant of the Alps —
Thy humble virtues, hospitable home,
And spirit patient, pious, proud and free;
Thy self-respect, grafted on innocent thoughts;
Thy days of health, and nights of sleep; thy toils,
By danger dignified, yet guiltless; hopes
Of cheerful old age and a quiet grave,
With cross and garland over its green turf,
And thy grandchildren's love for epitaph;
This do I see — and then I look within —
It matters not — my soul was scorch'd already !’

He leaves the hunter; and in the next scene, where a description is given of an Alpine sun-bow, he calls up the Witch of the Alps, from his conversation with whom we are made acquainted with a little more of his history:

——‘ From my youth upwards
My spirit walk'd not with the souls of men,
Nor look'd upon the earth with human eyes;
The thirst of their ambition was not mine;
The aim of their existence was not mine;
My joys, my griefs, my passions, and my powers,
Made me a stranger; though I wore the form,
I had no sympathy with breathing flesh,
Nor midst the creatures of clay that girded me
Was there but one who —— but of her anon.’*

Manfred then describes his daily ‘*pastimes*,’ viz. ‘to breathe the difficult air of the iced mountain's top,’—to roll along the torrent, — to observe the stars, — ‘to catch the lightnings till his eyes grew dim,’ — and to ‘pass the nights of years in sciences untaught.’ Having enlarged on these ideas, he thus proceeds:

‘ Oh! I but thus prolonged my words,
Boasting these idle attributes, because
As I approach the core of my heart's grief —
But to my task. I have not named to thee
Father or mother, mistress, friend, or being,
With whom I wore the chain of human ties;
If I had such, they seem'd not such to me —
Yet there was one ——

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* How different is the youthful picture of himself which Milton has supposed our Saviour to draw! —

“ When I was yet a child, no childish play
To me was pleasing: all my mind was set
Serious to learn and know, and thence to do,
What might be public good: myself I thought
Born to that end, born to promote all truth,
All righteous things.” *Paradise Regained,* i. 201.

'*Witch.* Spare not thyself — proceed.
'*Man.* She was like me in lineaments — her eyes,
Her hair, her features, all, to the very tone
Even of her voice, they said were like to mine;
But soften'd all, and temper'd into beauty;
She had the same lone thoughts and wanderings,
The quest of hidden knowledge, and a mind
To comprehend the universe: nor these
Alone, but with them gentler powers than mine,
Pity, and smiles, and tears — which I had not;
And tenderness — but that I had for her;
Humility — and that I never had.
Her faults were mine — her virtues were her own —
I loved her, and destroy'd her!
'*Witch.* With thy hand?
'*Man.* Not with my hand, but heart — which broke her heart —
It gazed on mine, and withered. I have shed
Blood, but not hers — and yet her blood was shed —
I saw — and could not staunch it.'

This passage, obscure as it is, affords the most guidance to the conjecture to which we are finally left respecting the crime of Manfred. After a grand picture of his despair, he refuses the offer of the witch to aid him if he will "do her bidding:"

'I will not swear — obey! and whom? the spirits
Whose presence I command, and be the slave
Of those who served me — never!'

He then resolves to use his only remaining resource, 'to call the dead,' and thus forcibly concludes the scene:

'Within few hours I shall not call in vain—
Yet in this hour I dread the thing I dare:
Until this hour I never shrunk to gaze
On spirit, good or evil — now I tremble,
And feel a strange cold thaw upon my heart,
But I can act even what I most abhor,
And champion human fears. — The night approaches.'

The succeeding scene is the meeting of Nemesis and the three Destinies, in their 'way to the hall of Arimanes;' where we are next introduced to that dread power, seated on a globe of fire, and surrounded by the spirits; whose hymn,

'He breatheth; and a tempest shakes the sea —
He speaketh,' &c.

rather too closely reminds us of the chorus of "Great Jove in his chair," in the opening of *Midas:*

"When he winks, Heaven shrinks,
When he speaks," &c.

Manfred enters, and, being 'a magian of great power, and fearful skill,' he is as disobedient to the tremendous personage on the throne of fire as Lord Amherst is reported to have been to his Imperial Majesty of China. He demands that they should 'call up the dead;'

> 'One without a tomb — call up
> Astarte.'

She appears; and, after an address from him, of much beauty and pathos, she is induced to speak, but merely tells him that 'to-morrow ends his earthly ills.'

The third act is chiefly occupied by the attempts of the Abbot of St. Maurice to convert Manfred. Of course, they are unavailing. In the Abbot's second interview, — the evening of the day of Manfred's pre-disclosed death being at hand, — the spirits rise to claim their victim: but he, though 'he feels his soul is ebbing from him,' defies their power: they disappear; and he expires, uttering these words:

> ''Tis over — my dull eyes can fix thee not;
> But all things swim around me, and the earth
> Heaves as it were beneath me. Fare thee well —
> Give me thy hand.'

In this act is a very beautiful address to the setting sun; which, however, we must exclude, in order to close our extracts with the following reflections on night, the softened beauty of which almost redeems the unpleasing wildness that precedes them:

> 'The stars are forth, the moon above the tops
> Of the snow-shining mountains. — Beautiful!
> I linger yet with Nature, for the night
> Hath been to me a more familiar face
> Than that of man; and in her starry shade
> Of dim and solitary loveliness,
> I learn'd the language of another world.
> I do remember me, that in my youth,
> When I was wandering, — upon such a night
> I stood within the Coloseum's wall,
> 'Midst the chief relics of almighty Rome;
> The trees which grew along the broken arches
> Waved dark in the blue midnight, and the stars
> Shone through the rents of ruin; from afar
> The watchdog bayed beyond the Tiber; and
> More near from out the Cæsars' palace came
> The owl's long cry, and, interruptedly,
> Of distant sentinels the fitful song
> Begun and died upon the gentle wind.
> Some cypresses beyond the time-worn breach
> Appeared to skirt the horizon, yet they stood
> Within a bowshot. — Where the Cæsars dwelt,
> And dwell the tuneless birds of night, amidst

A grove which springs through levell'd battlements,
And twines its roots with the imperial hearths,
Ivy usurps the laurel's place of growth;—
But the gladiators' bloody Circus stands,
A noble wreck in ruinous perfection!
While Cæsar's chambers, and the Augustan halls,
Grovel on earth in indistinct decay.—
And thou didst shine, thou rolling moon, upon
All this, and cast a wide and tender light,
Which soften'd down the hoar austerity
Of rugged desolation, and fill'd up,
As 'twere, anew, the gaps of centuries;
Leaving that beautiful which still was so,
And making that which was not, till the place
Became religion, and the heart ran o'er
With silent worship of the great of old!—
The dead, but sceptred sovereigns, who still rule
Our spirits from their urns.—'

It will be easily seen that this drama was never intended for representation, and it would therefore be unfair to criticise it as a theatrical effort. Our opinion of it as a poem may be collected from what we have already expressed; and, in terminating this article, we cannot refrain from repeating a hope that the time will come when we shall not associate with the muse of Lord Byron ideas of all that is terrible, gloomy, and forbidding.

ART. VII. *A Voyage round the World*, from 1806 to 1812, in which Japan, Kamschatka, the Aleutian Islands, and the Sandwich Islands, were visited. Including a Narrative of the Author's Shipwreck on the Island of Sannack, and his subsequent Wreck in the Ship's long Boat. With an Account of the present State of the Sandwich Islands, and a Vocabulary of their Language. By Archibald Campbell. Illustrated by a Chart. 8vo. pp. 288. 9s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1816.

THIS is in fact not so much the detail of a circumnavigator as the adventures of a young seaman, who, by a series of strange and disastrous events, has been reduced at an early age to extreme helplessness and consequent penury. In this state, after his return home, he was accidentally noticed by Mr. Smith, who dates from Jordan-hill, in Scotland, and discovered to have made a voyage round the world: when compassion and curiosity jointly induced Mr. Smith to draw up, and to publish for Campbell's benefit, a narrative of that voyage, in which he himself is made to tell his own story, speaking in the first person.

We learn that this son of misfortune was born at a village near Glasgow, and at the age of thirteen was bound apprentice to the master of a ship. In 1806, he was pressed into a man of war, but made his escape, and entered as seaman on board the Thames East Indiaman, in which he sailed to China. There he was inveigled to desert, and to enter on board an American ship named *the Eclipse*, belonging to Boston, but which had been chartered by the Russian American Company, and was now bound to Kamtschatka and the Russian American settlements, with a cargo of Chinese goods. The Eclipse sailed from the river Canton in May 1807, Campbell then not having quite completed his 20th year. In June, the ship anchored in the port of Nangasaki under Russian colours, but was strictly guarded there by the Japanese, and prevented from having any communication with the shore; though they supplied the voyagers with provisions. On the third day, the American captain, seeing no prospect of being allowed to trade, made sail and departed. The Japanese were at that time much incensed against the Russians, who had invaded some of the southern Kurili islands.

On July the 8th, the voyagers entered the harbour of St. Peter and St. Paul in Kamtschatka, where they remained during a month. The monument raised to the memory of Captain Charles Clerke, the coadjutor of Captain Cook, and which was repaired or re-erected by Captain Krusenstern and his officers, is noticed. The harbour of St. Peter and St. Paul affords the most perfect shelter from the sea: but, owing to the great height and position of the mountains, it is subject to heavy squalls, in consequence of which a very uncommon accident had recently happened there. A Russian ship, named the *Slawa Rossii*, which had formerly been commanded by Captain Billings, and after him by Captain Sarytscheff, having loosed the sails for the purpose of drying them, a sudden squall laid her on her beam-ends, and she filled and went down.

From Kamtschatka, the Eclipse sailed (in August) for the American coast, which she approached in a most unfortunate manner. The land was first made in the night, about ten o'clock; and, before the crew were well aware of any danger, the ship struck, but went on, and, the sea running high, she beat so hard against the ground that the rudder was unhung and the stern-post forced upwards. In less than an hour, she went to pieces. The long boat had been cleared, and the fastenings which secured her to the ship had been cut, when 'a tremendous sea precipitated the whole crew into the water, and the boat, having nothing to hold her fast, drove away.' Fifteen men tried to save themselves on one of the masts, and others got on the bowsprit. After thirteen hours, dreadfully passed, the Captain, one of the mates, and Campbell, landed from the mast: the rest had been washed away, and had yielded to their fate. Four men reached the shore from the bowsprit, but two of them expired almost immediately.

The land on which they were cast was one of the eastern of the Aleutian or Fox islands, in latitude 54° 27′ N.: by Captain Cook named *Halibut* island, by the natives Sannack. The people discovered muscles and fresh water, and many things floated to the shore from the wreck; and they also found the long boat.

'One or two of the seamen's chests drove ashore, and amongst them mine; it contained only one shirt and my Bible, which I had put into one of those squares common in sailors' chests for holding case-bottles, and in which it was firmly fixed, in consequence of having swelled with the water. I was at great pains in drying it in the sun, and succeeded so well that I could read any part of it. It was afterwards saved from a second wreck; and in my future hardships and sufferings, the perusal of it formed my greatest consolation. It is still in my possession, being the only article I brought with me when I returned to my native country.'

Having saved much of the wreck, the Captain and his associates were encouraged to set about building a vessel large enough to sail to the Sandwich islands, where they did not doubt of meeting with American ships. Towards the end of September, which was above a fortnight after their disaster, they were joined by a party of native Americans, who brought them fish, and berries cured with seal-oil; which Campbell and his companions then deemed 'no small luxury;' and, which was of more consequence, one of the natives kindled a fire (for they had been all this time without one) in the following manner:

'He laid a piece of soft wood on the ground, and took another within his teeth: between these he put an upright piece of a harder quality, which he twirled rapidly round with a thong of hide, as we would a drill; the friction soon kindled the soft wood, and by placing it in dried grass, and blowing it, it burst into a flame. We lost no time in broiling the fish, and enjoyed the first comfortable meal we had since the shipwreck. The next day about forty Indians, men and women, came and encamped beside us; they made huts for themselves, by setting up planks, leaning against each other at the top, and throwing earth upon them, over which they put a covering of grass.'

The natives shared all that they had with the wrecked seamen, in the most liberal manner; and, a few days afterward, the Russian commandant of Oonalaska, having been informed of the ship's loss, arrived at the place.

In order to obtain some necessary stores for the equipment of the vessel which they were building, it was determined that the long boat should be sent to Kodiak, and Campbell went in her. The crew departed with moderate weather: but 'about noon the wind freshened to a smart gale and the sea rose, frequently curling over the stern in an alarming manner, till we adopted an expedient of which I fortunately recollected having read in the voyages of some Dutch navigators, who used oil to smooth the sea. Upon trying the experiment, it proved an effectual remedy. We lashed a keg of oil upon the taffrail, allowing a small stream to run from it, which spread a scum over the surface in our wake, and completely prevented the waves from topping.'

They stopped at an island named Ungar, where was a Russian settlement, which had undergone a dreadful calamity. 'The whole of the male inhabitants, except the Russian overseer and his son, and the Indian interpreter, having gone out to catch seals, about three weeks before this time, a severe gale of wind came on, which their slight canoes were unable to resist, and every one of them perished.'

Alexandria, formerly named St. Paul, is the chief place on Kodiak, and is the principal Russian settlement among the Fox islands. After having accomplished the business on which she was sent, the long boat departed from Alexandria to return to Sannack; and, in attempting to make this passage, it was the fate of poor Campbell to be visited with sufferings far greater than those even which he had endured in his shipwreck. It was now the month of January; and, on the second day after they had left Alexandria, bad weather forced the crew into a bay on the northern side of Kodiak. The place yielded nothing towards their support; and, at the end of ten days, the dread of famine obliged them to put to sea again, in the hopes of reaching a settlement named Karlouski, which lay at no great distance to the west.

'On the morning of the 21st,' Campbell relates, 'we launched the boat and stood over towards the main land. When about mid-channel we discovered that the boat had sprung a leak; at the same time a heavy fall of snow came on, accompanied with violent squalls. The leak gained so much upon us, that it became absolutely necessary to run for the nearest shore. Had the day been clear, we might have got back to the harbour we had quitted in the morning; but the snow rendered it so dark that we could scarcely see a boat's length a-head; we had therefore no resource but to put before the wind, and trust our lives to Providence.

'The first view we had of the shore was most alarming; we were completely embayed, with a heavy surf breaking amongst the rocks, whilst at the same time the violence of the gale, and the state of the boat, were such as to preclude any hopes of working out of the bay. We therefore turned the bow to that part of the shore which seemed clearest of rocks, and a sea carried us so far up, that, when it retired, we were left almost dry; next wave carried us a little farther, upon which the second mate imprudently let go the anchor; when it retired we all jumped out, and reached the shore in safety. Upon the return of the swell, the boat swung round with her head to the sea, and being prevented by the anchor from driving farther up, she almost immediately went to pieces upon the rocks.

'That part of the island on which we were cast was quite barren, and many miles distant from the nearest settlement, the path to which lay across mountains covered with snow.

'After collecting what we could save of the wreck of the boat, we set out in search of some place to shelter us for the night, and fortunately discovered, at no great distance, one of those huts that are constructed for the use of the fox and bear hunters. It was too small to admit of a fire in the inside; but the number of people crowded into it rendered the cold less intense; and we lighted a fire in the open air, at which we made ready our provisions.'

They now deliberated whether to attempt their way to Karlouski across the mountains, or by going along-shore at low water: but the danger of travelling over the snow made them prefer the latter. On the morning of the 22d, they quitted the hut.

'Having proceeded some distance, we were interrupted by a reef of rocks, over which it was necessary to wade. I was provided with strong seal-skin boots, but unfortunately, in crossing, they were filled with water, which, the cold being so severe, the exercise of walking did not prevent from freezing. In a short time I lost all feeling in my feet, but was able to keep up with my companions, till our progress along shore was completely stopped by a mountain which projected into the sea. Finding it impossible to get round the base, we attempted to climb over the summit. It was very steep, and in many places crusted with ice. I had by this time entirely lost the power of my feet, and, with all my exertions, was unable to keep pace with my companions. In many places I was forced to dig steps in the ice and snow, with a pair of boots I had on my hands for that purpose. At length, after great labour and fatigue, I gained what I imagined to be the summit; it proved, however, to be little more than half-way up, and the higher part of the mountain was quite inaccessible. I endeavoured to descend again; but in a short time found that the state of my feet rendered the attempt unavailing. I had no alternative but to slide down; and therefore throwing away the boots, and placing my hands behind me, to direct my course, I came down with such velocity, that, at the foot of the hill, I sunk at least ten feet into the frozen snow. I was at first almost suffocated, till I made a little room by pressing the snow from me. I called as loud as I was able for assistance, but could not make my companions hear me, although I heard their voices perfectly well calling upon me. I at length relieved myself, by compressing the snow till it became sufficiently hard to bear my weight. I then planted my feet into it, and reached the surface. We turned back, and endeavoured to proceed by a valley which lay behind the mountain. My feet by this time were frozen, never to recover; and I was so ill able to ascend, that I was frequently blown over by the wind, and sometimes driven a considerable way down the hill.'

These poor fellows were thus obliged to pass the long winter-night in the open air; which, Campbell says, 'was a most unfortunate circumstance for me, for had I reached the hut and got my feet dried, they would in all likelihood have recovered. It blew hard, and the night was piercingly cold. We returned to the valley, where there was some shelter from the wind.' The next day, Campbell followed his companions as well as the state of his feet would permit: but a craggy rock, nearly perpendicular, was to be passed; and, as he says, 'my feet were of no use in climbing, and I was obliged to drag myself up by my hands, in doing which they also were frozen.' Still he was able to reach a hut which was a few miles farther on, but after that day he never again *walked on his feet.*

All possible care was taken of Campbell at Karlouski: but, from the want of medical assistance, his feet and hands began to mortify, on which account he was put into a whale-skin boat which was bound to Alexandria. 'The frame of this boat was so slight that when between the waves she was bent into a deep curve, and whilst on the top of the wave the two ends were as much depressed.' On arriving at Alexandria, he was immediately carried to the hospital; on the next day, the surgeon cut off one finger, and a joint of another was afterward removed: but the rest recovered.

> 'Finding no favourable symptoms in my feet, the surgeon informed me I must submit to lose them in order to save my life. I had no idea that the case was so hopeless, and was not prepared for such an alternative. I requested three days to consider. At the end of that time I told him I had made up my mind, and would submit to the operations. Accordingly, he amputated one of them on the 15th March, and the other on the 17th April following. Unfortunately for me he cut them off below the ancle joint, from a wish to take as little away as possible; the sores extended above the place, and have never completely healed. By the month of August I could creep about on my hands and knees.'

The case of Campbell excited great compassion, and he was treated with the utmost humanity. In the small remote settlement of Alexandria, and which cannot be supposed to be very rich, the Russian governor, M. Baranoff, and the officers of the garrison and of the ships in the harbour, entered into a subscription for his relief, which amounted to 180 rubles, or 45l., the ruble being about 4s. in value.

When poor Campbell was tolerably recovered, he was employed to teach eight young natives the English language, in order to qualify them to act as interpreters between the Russians and the Americans or English, whose ships, the former especially, frequently touch at the Russian settlements. Many Russians, in both their Kamtschatkan and their American settlements, are married to native women; — a very general custom in settlements founded on usurpation or conquest. The Dutch seem to have followed this practice the least of any people, the Portuguese the most, and they were chiefly enabled by it to maintain their dominion so long in the East Indies. A school was now established at Alexandria for instructing the children of the natives in the Russian language, writing, and arithmetic; and, 'as far as I may judge from the children which were under my care,' says Campbell, 'there is little difficulty in teaching them these acquirements.'

The Russian ship Neva, in which Captain Lisianski had sailed round the world, had been again sent to the north-west coast of America, and came at this time to Kodiak: where she was ordered to prepare for a voyage to the Sandwich islands. 'It would appear that the Russians had determined to form a settlement upon these islands; at least, preparations were made for the purpose; and I was informed by the commandant, that, if I chose, I might get a situation as interpreter. The ship had a house in frame on board, and intimation was given that volunteers would be received; none, however, offered; and I never observed that any other steps were taken in this affair.' Thinking that he might find opportunities of going from the Sandwich islands to either Europe or America, Campbell asked to be taken as a passenger in the Neva, which was granted; and in January 1809 he was landed at the island of Wahoo, and was received into the protection of Tamena, one of the two wives of Tamaahmaah, the King of the Sandwich islands. Here he remained thirteen months; and the rest of his book is almost wholly occupied with descriptions of the manners, customs, and language of these islanders, and of events relative to them. As we have spoken rather at length of the adventures related in the former part, we must content ourselves with saying very little more of this than, generally, that we find in it some new and entertaining information. Campbell was in much favour, being useful as a sail-maker; a business which he understood, but by which he cannot maintain himself in his native country, being unable to hold a bolt-rope with his mutilated hand. Before, however, he had adopted a sea-life, he had been bound apprentice to a weaver; and he had now the ingenuity to make himself a loom, with which he produced to Tamaahmaah a piece of canvas of his own weaving, the threads being the fibres of a plant of which the natives make fishing-lines. The King consequently gave him land, the produce of which supported him; and he lived with one of his countrymen, a North Briton named Stevenson, who had been a convict and had escaped from New South Wales, it should seem unfortunately for the Sandwich islanders, as he introduced among them the art of distilling a spirit from a root which is here called the tee-root. The natives have great readiness of apprehension; and Campbell says, 'it is astonishing how soon they learn any useful art from their visitors. Many are employed as carpenters, coopers, and blacksmiths, and do their work as well as Europeans. In the King's forge there were none but native blacksmiths: they had been taught by the armourer of a ship who quitted the island while I was there.'

In February 1809, a South-sea whaler, named *the Duke of Portland*, commanded by Captain Spence, bound for England, put in at the Sandwich islands; and Campbell asked permission of Tamaahmaah to take passage in her, which was not refused: indeed, it seems that, though this chief has always been desirous of having Europeans with him, he never detained any one contrary to his inclination. Tamaahmaah sent by Captain Spence a present for the King of England, consisting of a handsome cloak of feathers; accompanied by a letter, the purport of which was, the author says, 'to remind the King of Captain Vancouver's promise that a man of war, with brass guns, and loaded with European articles, should be sent to him;' and we have heard that directions have been given for a small vessel to be sent from New South Wales to Tamaahmaah. — Campbell takes leave of the Sandwich islands with expressions of gratitude creditable to the dignity of Tamaahmaah and to his own feelings. 'It will be believed,' he says, 'that I did not leave Wahoo without deep regret. I had been thirteen months upon the island, and had experienced nothing but kindness and friendship from all ranks — from my much honoured master, the King, down to the lowest native.'

Our unfortunate voyager sailed in the Duke of Portland round Cape Horne, and to Rio Janeiro; where, on account of his legs getting into a bad state, he was obliged to stay. The American consul procured for him admission into the Portuguese hospital, and the Captain and crew of the ship made a subscription for him to the amount of fifty dollars: 'they did not,' he says, 'leave me unprovided in a strange country.' He remained during twenty-two months at Brasil, whence he sailed in a vessel bound to Scotland, and arrived in the Clyde in April 1812.

An appendix contains a small vocabulary of the Sandwich-island-language; together with other papers deserving notice. No. 2. is a statement of the case of Campbell, in the manner of a certificate, which was given to him by the surgeon under whose care he was placed at Kodiak, with the benevolent intention that it might conduce to his future support. It is with much satisfaction that we find so worthy a testimonial of the care, attention, and humanity, with which his patient was treated in the hospital at Alexandria, since it fully obviates any impression of an opposite nature which might have arisen from an inadvertent expression used by the editor in another part of the book. No. 3. of the Appendix is a short historical account of the Sandwich islands; and No. 4. is a relation of the dispute which happened between the English at Canton and the Chinese, in 1807, extracted from the news-papers.

In conclusion, we have to remark that the whole conduct of this young seaman displays resignation, and a disposition to be contented under the most heavy calamities; which doubtless has contributed, and probably as much as the misery of his condition, to interest in his behalf all who have seen him. Considering his situation, as well as the information and entertainment contained in his account, we scruple not to say that the purchase of it will be no unprofitable act of charity.

Art. VIII. *Comic Dramas*, in Three Acts. By Maria Edgeworth, Author of "Tales of Fashionable Life," &c. &c. 12mo. pp. 381. 7s. Boards. Hunter. 1817.

When a traveller is acquainted with his way, and knows the path before him to be pleasant, he shews a want of policy if he wanders into unexplored tracts on the speculation of arriving at his journey's end by a shorter progress. That expectation is generally disappointed; and he has often to retrace his steps, and to return to the main road, which he perhaps finds it difficult to regain. Such is a frequent result, whether the journey be in search of pleasure, of health, of riches, or of fame; and the adventurer in either of these pursuits, particularly in the last, if he fails in his new attempt, too often dissipates that which he has already acquired. We do not, therefore, agree with those who have recommended Miss Edgeworth to deviate from the path in which she has trodden so well, and to venture on one to the intricacies of which she has been unaccustomed. If she had been guided solely by her own good sense and good taste, we are inclined to conjecture that the little volume before us would have been superseded by a production similar to those by which she has before obtained the applause and esteem of her country; and we are glad that it has already been followed by another publication of that nature. Miss Edgeworth's talents are not strictly dramatic; because, though her dialogue is frequently excellent, and her wit always ready, she has not the necessary art of compressing within a small compass incidents sufficiently important and attractive to form the plot of a play; nor characters marked with sufficient strength and distinctness to support its interest. Her fable and her *fabulæ personæ* require a more gradual developement than the extent of a comedy will allow.

The dramas before us exemplify the truth of these remarks. They would form good underplots of a play: but their texture is too fragile, their materials are too simple, and their interest is too slight, to support a complete drama. We are presented with three, of which two are entirely Irish, and contain many humourous, and, we doubt not, correct illustrations of national peculiarities. We therefore felt more strongly our regret that they should be wasted here instead of adorning one of Miss E.'s tales, in which they would have appeared with so much more effect, and been read with so much more pleasure.

'*Love and Law*' is the title of the first drama; and it is devoted to the loves of Randal Rooney and Honor M'Bride, the *Romeo* and *Juliet* of Ballynavogue and Ballynascraw, being the son and daughter of the rival factions of those villages. Nothing more tragic occurs, however, than a few broken heads in a fight at a fair. The *Paris* of the play is a roguish distiller, who is a sort of Irish *counshillor*; and the other characters are Pat Coxe his clerk,—Catty Rooney, a litigious scold, but warm hearted,—a consequential magistrate,—and some others of less importance.—The second drama is founded on the choice made by a minor between '*The two Guardians*,' named in his father's will, and would make a fair companion to the little dramas in "the Children's Friend."—The last is called '*The Rose, Thistle, and Shamrock*,' and is by far the best; although the plot is perhaps more simple, and the characters are principally of the lower class. An English gentleman, desirous of providing for Gilbert a faithful servant, undertakes to use his interest with his late ward, an Irish heiress just of age, to obtain for him a new inn just built on her estate. Gilbert is in love with a young and poor damsel, whose brother has written a song in praise of the heiress. This song is unfortunately procured by Christy Gallagher, the drunken landlord of the old inn; who, being a candidate for the new inn, attaches it as his own to his memorial to the lady, and she in consequence promises to grant *the poet's petition*: but the fraud is exposed in the end, and the favourites of course become tenants of the inn. The other characters introduced are the bashful English servant, a modest Irish lass, the drunken and cunning landlord, with his conceited and idle daughter, who has been to the dancing-school of Ferrinafad, and an honest Scotch drum-major. Several very entertaining scenes occur, from which, for the amusement of our readers, we shall select a part of one. It will be perceived, however, that its excellence is not altogether dramatic, but consists in Miss Edgeworth's usual skilful representation of Irish character, slovenliness, and poverty. The scene is the parlour of the old inn, where Miss Florinda Gallagher is dressing herself in preparation for the arrival of the Scotch drum-major, whom she is in hopes of captivating. Her clothes are thrown about the floor, and the disorder is increased by her father; who, in his search for his key of the spirits, has emptied the chest containing her dresses, finds a quantity of apples, and calls Biddy, the servant, to take directions for making them into a pie:

' *Enter* Biddy, *running with a ladle in her hand.*

' *Christy.* Drop whatever you have in your hand, and come here, and be hanged to you. And had you no ears to your head, Biddy?

' *Biddy.* Sure I have, Sir — ears enough. Only they are bothering me so without, that pig and the dog fighting, that I could not hear ye calling at-all-at-all. — What is it? — For I'm skimming the pot, and can't lave it. (*Miss* Gallagher *goes on dressing.*)

' *Christy.* It's only these apples, see! — You'll make me an apple-pie, Biddy, smart.

' *Biddy.* Save us, Sir! — And how will I ever get time, when I've the hash to make for them Scotch yet? Nor can I tell, for the life of me, what it was I did with the onions and scallions neither, barring by great luck they'd be in and under the press here, (*Running to look under the press*) which they are, praised be God! in the far corner. (Biddy *stretches her arm under the press.*)

' *Christy.* There's a nice girl, and a cute cliver girl, worth a dozen of your Ferrinafads.

(Biddy *throws the onions out while he speaks.*)

' *Miss G.* Then she's as idle a girl as treads the earth, in or out of shoe-leather, for there's my bed that she has not made yet, and the stairs with a month's dust always! and never ready by any chance to do a pin's worth for one, when one's dressing.

(*A drum heard; the sound seems to be approaching near.*)

' *Christy.* Blood! the last rowl of the drum, and I not got the kay of the spirits.

' *Miss G.* Oh, saints above! what's gone with my plaid scarf? — and my hair *behind*, see!

Miss Gallagher *twists up her hair behind.* — Biddy *gathers up the onions into her apron, and exit hastily.* — Christy *runs about the room in a distracted manner, looking under and over every thing, repeating — The kay! the kay! the kay!*

' *Christy.* For the whiskey must be had for them Scotch, and the bottled beer too for them English; and how will I get all or any without the kay? Bones, and distraction!

' *Miss G.* And my plaid hanke'cher that must be had, and where will I find it? — in the name of all the damons in this chaos you've made me out of the chist, father? And how will I git all in again, before the drum-major's in it?

'*Christy.* (*Sweeping up a heap of things in his arms, and throwing them into the chest.*) Very asy, sure! this ways.

'*Miss G.* (*Darting forward.*) There's the plaid handke'cher. (*She draws it out from the heap under her father's arm, and smooths it on her knee.*) But, oh! father, how you are making hay of my things!

'*Christy.* Then I wish I could make hay of them, for hay is much wanting for the horses that's in it.

'*Miss G.* (*Putting on her plaid scarf.*) Weary on these pins! that I can't stick any way at all, my hands all trimble so.—Biddy! Biddy! Biddy! Biddy, can't ye?—(*Re-enter* Biddy, *looking bewildered.*) Just pin me behind, girl—smart.

'*Christy.* Biddy, is it?—Biddy, girl, come over and help me tramp down this hay.—(Christy *jumps into the chest.*)

'*Miss G.* Oh, Biddy, run and stop him, for the love of God! with his brogues and big feet.

'*Biddy.* Oh, marcy! that's too bad, Sir; get out o' that if you plase, or Miss Florry will go mad, sure! and the major that's coming up the street. Oh, Sir, if you plase, in the name of marcy!

'*Christy.* (*Jumping out.*) Why, then, sittle it all yourself, Biddy, and success to you; but you'll no more get all in again afore Christmas, to the best of my opinion, no more, see! than you'd get bottled porter, froth and all, into the bottle again, once it was out.

'*Miss G.* Such comparisons!—(*tossing back her head.*)

'*Christy.* And caparisons!—(*pointing to the finery on the floor.*) But in the middle of it all, lend me the poker, which will answer for the master-kay, sure!—that poker that is houlding up the window—can't ye, Biddy?

(Biddy *runs and pulls the poker hastily from under the sash, which suddenly falls, and every pane of glass falls out and breaks.*)

'*Christy.* Murder! and no glazier!

'*Miss G.* Then, Biddy, of all girls, alive or dead, you're the awk'ardest, vulgarest, unluckiest to touch any thing at all!

'*Biddy.* (*Picking up the glass.*) I can't think what's come to the glass, that makes it break so asy the day! sure I done it a hundred times the same, and it never broke wid me afore.

'*Christy.* Well! stick up a petticoat, or something of the kind, and any way lend me hould of the poker, for, in lieu of a kay, that's the only frind in need! (*Exit* Christy *with the poker.*)'

We shall speedily take notice of the new Tales from this fair writer's pen; which, as we before intimated, have just made their appearance.

ART. IX. *Beauties of Massinger.* 12mo. pp. 304. 8s. Boards. Porter. 1817.

WE have here a volume as unassuming in its internal pretensions as in its form and title-page. A modest dedication, "as in duty bound," to Mr. Gifford; a neat sonnet, the humility of which, if it had been applied to a work asserting

ing the claim of originality, would have been very commendable, but which, as prefixed to this selection of passages, was scarcely requisite; an advertisement of two pages by way of explaining the compiler's design; a brief sketch of the life of Massinger, well abstracted from the several biographies; and a short argument of each of his plays, in the order in which they are printed in the last edition of them; constitute the whole of the book which can establish the merit of authorship. These expositions are followed by *one* of the most striking scenes, as a specimen of the conduct of the piece, and the style of the dialogue: then come detached passages, each having a title prefixed, which may be found in the index subjoined to the volume for the sake of reference.

Such is the simple history of an extremely simple publication; the merit of which must, it is obvious, principally consist in the truth and perspicuity of the prefatory arguments, and the judiciousness of the selections made; and on both these heads the general survey, which our leisure has allowed us to make of its contents, enables us to report favourably. The arguments are merely narrative, professedly without any attempt at critical remark or illustration: to quote them, therefore, seems to be altogether superfluous; and to give specimens of the specimens would be still more unnecessary. Mr. Gifford has conferred the great benefit on the public of placing Massinger himself, in a much more correct form than he had ever borne, on the shelves of every possessor of a library: yet, with all his beauties and excellences, Massinger will never recover a place among authors who are generally read. The attempts to revive him on the stage have almost entirely failed, with the exception of the *New Way to pay old Debts*; and in the closet, unless "the love of antique lore" marvellously helps out the reader, he will scarcely get through any one play. The more we read of our old dramatic authors,—and it is a study to which on several recent occasions we have professed ourselves to be, and in truth are, very fondly attached,—the more we are convinced that only one among them was capable of true dramatic composition; and, to say nothing of the Marlowes and Marstons and Deckers, the Middletons and Websters and Rowleys, the stilts on which their respective editors have chosen to mount such poets as Fletcher, Jonson, and Massinger, only tend to render them nearly ridiculous when placed by the side of the giant Shakspeare.

On this account, chiefly, we offer our sincere thanks to the present compiler, for what we really esteem as one of the most sensible presents that can be made to the lovers of poetry in general. By more than nine-tenths of those who may honestly come under this description, our old dramatists cannot be read, except in detached passages; and in passages only they certainly are able to afford the richest of all poetical treats, to those whose taste is genuine and unsophisticated. They are capable of still more, — of correcting a vitiated taste, and bringing it back to the love of truth and simplicity. It is a disgrace to our literature that, while a bookseller's shop is full of "Elegant Extracts" in all shapes and sizes, culled from the most servile copyists since the Restoration, we cannot lay our hands on one compilation from our elder bards, "the pure well of English undefiled;" which remain locked up from common use by the expensive form of modern editions, or the scarcity of the original copies.

It is proper to have begun with Massinger. In estimating his rank as a dramatic writer among those of his day, there is room for very considerable doubt: but, with respect to his poetical genius, we think that he stands decidedly next to Shakspeare; and this little manual will open a new fund of delight to many who, in spite of Monck Mason and Gifford, have never yet suspected what is in store for them. We shall be extremely glad to see the example followed by an equally judicious selection from Beaumont and Fletcher, and afterward from Ford, Middleton, and the rest: but we should have no objection to the addition of some good criticism, as introductory to the beauties which are successively presented to us; not being of so fastidious a turn as to disdain the gratification afforded by a fine scene, whether in nature or in poetry, because an obliging guide tells us previously when and where we ought to be pleased. We think, also, that it would be a manifest and decided improvement on the plan, if, instead of a mere argument prefixed to each division of extracts, the author would take the trouble of leading us through every drama, step by step; introducing us to the principal characters, and giving us a general view of the conduct of the piece. The poetical beauties would themselves be greatly enhanced by such a course; and we should have at once before our eyes a comprehensive view of the early English stage, and of the genius of its several founders. That which Mr. Ellis so elegantly and successfully accomplished for our old romances might, with vast advantage, be attempted with respect to our old dramas; though it is one thing to adopt Mr. Ellis's plan, and another to carry it into execution like Mr. Ellis. With regard to the gentleman who has favoured us with the present volume, he has done too little himself to enable us to judge precisely how much more he may be capable of accomplishing: but we have already said that what he has done he has done well.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE, FOR JULY, 1817.

CLASSICS, EDUCATION, &c.

Art. 10. *P. Virgilii Maronis Bucolica, Georgica, Æneis; accedunt in gratiam juventutis notæ quædam Anglice scriptæ.* Edit. 2nda. Londini, in Ædibus Valpianis. 12mo. pp. 640. 7s. 6d. Boards.

This little school-Virgil is a re-print, with the addition of some notes in English, of one which formerly issued from the same press. These notes are in part translated from the Delphin edition, and in part taken from Professors Martyn and Heyne: but those on the Eclogues and Georgics exclusively are from the pen of that able scholar, J. H. Voss, whose critical researches have long since become extremely scarce. The references to the Greek poets are probably quoted from what is termed the Oxford-Virgil, if indeed there be any unnoticed by Heyne. The text is neatly printed, and, as far as we examined it, we found it correct. With the notes we are dissatisfied on one account only, which is that, besides general elucidation, they frequently supply the place of a glossary; and we are convinced that these appendices encourage idleness in boys of talent, although they may be useful resources to those who are less strongly gifted. The writer of a glossary is apt to round his phrase too much, in the endeavour to convey the fullness of idiomatic expressions. We consider that a knowlege of idiom is an object secondary to grammatical precision, and will usually follow the former when that is obtained.

Art. 11. Λουκιανου Σαμοσατεως Ἀναλεκτα. Selections from Lucian, with a Latin Translation, and English Notes; to which are subjoined a Mythological Index, and Lexicon adapted to the Work: compiled for the Use of Schools, by John Walker, formerly Fellow of Dublin College. 12mo. pp. 357. 10s. 6d. Printed at Glasgow.

An useful little book for students in the Greek language, with well-selected dialogues, and much more comprehensive than the portion of Lucian that is given in the "*Scriptores Græci*" now read in Eton and Harrow schools. The text is from Reitzius and Hemsterhuis, printed with great correctness, and cleared from any passages which are offensive to the eye of decency. Our observations on glossaries attached to school-books, in the last article, are in great part applicable to the Græco-English Lexicon appended to this little volume: which, nevertheless, displays much industry and sound scholarship in its author, and, in simply giving the best English expression for the correspondent one in the Greek language, with the etymology of the latter, is free from the objection of teaching by paraphrastic vocabulary: a mode which we deem destructive of all real knowlege. The Latin version has some sensible notes attached, specifying the few variations from the text which the editor has adopted. Mr. Walker is himself engaged in education at Glasgow, and receives a few pupils in his own family; and he also instructs a class of eight in the year previous to that in which they propose to enter at the University. To an establishment of this nature, such a work as the one before us is far more useful than to large seminaries, where numerous classes of scholars assemble for the purpose of examination. In the latter case, it is a difficult matter to sift the idle from the industrious, if they have in their hands an edition of an author supplying all that collateral information which is necessary to elucidate him; and at such times they are too apt to refer by stealth, and at the moment of examination, instead of previously storing their minds with the requisite replies to the probable inquiries of their instructor.

Art. 12. *Gumal and Lina;* or The African Children. Designed chiefly for the Use of Young People. Translated from the French by S. B. Moens. With Plates. 12mo. 2 Vols. 7s. 6d. Boards. Darton and Co. 1817.

" A *tale* contrived a double debt to pay,"

offering to children an interesting story of two young negroes, and at the same time giving a recapitulation of the Ten Commandments, with all the articles of the Christian faith. The design is ingeniously executed: but we are not convinced that it is a desirable attempt thus to unite religious instruction with attractive fiction; because young readers, who are pleased with the story, will either skip over the theological interludes, or they will read them with impatience on account of the interruption given to the narrative.

Art. 13. *Classical Reading Lessons for every Day in the Year,* selected chiefly from the best English Writers of the Reign of George the Third. By the Rev. William Sharpe. 12mo. 5s. 6d. bound. Longman and Co. 1817.

This selection may be recommended to young people who are sufficiently advanced, in their course of education, to understand and relish the works of Blair, Addison, and similar writers.

NOVELS.

Art. 14. *Melincourt.* By the Author of " Headlong Hall." 12mo. 3 Vols. 18s. Boards. Hookham and Co. 1817.

We have already had occasion to speak favourably of this writer's late performance, " Headlong Hall;" (Rev. Vol. lxxxii. p. 330.) and we may announce 'Melincourt' as a work of equal pleasantry and more argument. The author has a certain set of opinions, which he seems determined to illustrate, and in defence of which he deals some rather hard satirical strokes to the right and to the left. His dialogues have much sterling wit; and the principal personage is certainly an original conception, since he is an *Oran-Outang* brought forwards as a specimen of *the natural man* by his friend Mr. Forester, who, to give him consequence, buys for him a baronetcy and a seat in Parliament! The *character* of 'Sir Oran Hautton,' for so he is named, is most ably and ingeniously supported; the ladies acknowlege him 'to have a decided air of high fashion;'

fashion;' and the authority of Buffon and other naturalists is adduced for describing him as being, with regard to manners and appearance, " the counterfeit presentment" of our race.

The writer errs, however, in giving his own powerful diction to the female characters: for instance, we cannot imagine that the ' Honourable Mrs. Pinmoney' would assert her worldly and foolish opinions in such nervous language and with so much logic as she is made to utter; and even Anthelia would have been more pleasing, and more natural, if she had made shorter speeches, and had abstained from such a copious enunciation of her sentiments respecting love and marriage on her first introduction to Mr. Forester. The elopement of Lord Anophel Achthar with Anthelia is also too common-place an incident, in novels particularly; and occasional inadvertencies are discernible in the continuation of the story; thus in vol. iii. p. 156. a chapter begins as follows: ' The roads being now buried in snow, they were compelled to follow the most beaten track,' &c. but the reader is not obliged to know who is here meant, since even the persons who were last mentioned in the chapter preceding are certainly not among the travellers.

Such trifling oversights detract little from the merit of this book; which, for quaint burlesque, for characteristic satire, and for ingenious discussion, will stand high among the lighter productions of the present day.

Art. 15. *Placide*, a Spanish Tale. Translated from " *Les Battuécas*" of Madame de Genlis. By Alex. Jamieson. 12mo. 2 Vols. 8s. Boards. Simpkin and Marshall. 1817.

This celebrated and pleasing writer appears to have fallen into the same mistake which Milton made long before her, and to consider as her best performance one which we believe the common suffrage will pronounce to be nearly her worst. We object not to the character of *Placide* as an effort of the imagination, but we disapprove the general tissue of the story; which is extravagantly romantic and improbable; and in which the virtuous actions of the most amiable characters are atchieved in defiance of human nature and of common sense.

The translation is not elegant, but it is sufficiently faithful to give a correct idea of the original.

Art. 16. *Rachel*, a Tale. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Taylor and Hessey. 1817.

Some of Rachel's concealments may not be considered as offering a safe or useful example; though the scope of this tale is to shew the value of candour; and to exhibit a plain but honest young lady, who is preferred for her simplicity to the beautiful cousin whom her lover detects in endeavouring to lower her friend's good qualities, and in practising sundry little disingenuous devices.

Art. 17. *Hardenbrass and Haverill*; or The Secret of the Castle. 12mo. 4 Vols. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1817.

We have here an evident imitation of Fielding's and Smollett's novels; and, like most imitations, it partakes more largely of the defects than of the excellences of its models. A battle is made to take place in every company, and some of the scenes as well as many of the jokes are indelicate: but ocasionally a broad humour and a farcical exhibition of human nature are displayed which are irresistibly entertaining. In the first volume, the pretensions of Joanna Southcote and her adherents are held up to deserved ridicule: but, as the influence of her delusion is over, we are sorry to see the subject revived; and we consider as highly mischievous the habit which this part of the book would generate, namely, that of associating ludicrous images with scriptural names and phrases.

Art. 18. *Montague Newburgh*, or The Mother and Son. By Alicia Catherine Mant, Author of "Ellen, or the Young Godmother," and "Caroline Lismore, or the Errors of Fashion." 12mo. 2 Vols. 10s. 6d. Boards. Law and Whittaker. 1817.

The morality of this tale is unexceptionable, and parts of it are written in a style of such simplicity and pathos as to resemble passages in Mrs. Opie's best novels. The scenes during Mrs. Newburgh's illness and subsequent recovery, with that in which she receives an account of her son's first naval engagement, may be particularly noticed; and Montague's sea-terms and ideas are pleasing and spirited: but his character is represented as too faultless, and his speeches, with those of the little Louisa in the first volume, are more sentimental and refined than the natural language of children.

In vol. i. page 14., instead of the French word *la Gloire*, *la Glorie* is twice printed, and the following phrases are incorrect: vol. i. page 341., 'Tom might not like to have his clothes remarked *on*;' — Vol. ii. page 181., 'he would pour forth the *repositories* of a mind well stored;' — and at the head of a chapter at page 7. is this curious quotation:

'"My Mother!" *Cowper.*'

This reminds us of Caleb Quotem's citations, "as the poet has it."

Art. 19. *Modern Manners*; or a Season at Harrowgate. 12mo. 2 Vols. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1817.

We had yet to learn that it is according to 'Modern Manners' for a gentleman to address ladies by their Christian names on the first day of their acquaintance; and on the third day, growing still more free and easy, to say, with Captain Nevison in the present novel, 'My dear Elvina.' Perhaps the following curious incident is also meant to shew that it is the fashion to have no reserve among friends: (vol. i. p. 112.) 'The flower was wafted into the water, and his Lordship's eagerness to recover it occasioned a *motion in the boat*, when Elvina foolishly screaming, the next moment saw her plunged into the water, while Emma with great presence of mind *pulled hold of the boatmen*, and caused them to suspend their oars,' &c. The few French expressions which occur are incorrect, such as '*petite soupées*,' '*Vive la Bourbon*,' &c.; and the following improprieties can scarcely be attributed to the negligence of the press: vol. i. p. 17., 'as to *him* not being with us;' p. 68., 'he *beat* on the odd trick'; p. 56., 'Nothing like distinction, and *as such*, what shall I wear;' p. 55., 'the sentence was finished in the sitting-room, and *as such* a concluding smile, as he looked round, made it become general;' p. 106., 'I thought to have driven Sophy Clermont out of his head, *as such* he is gone and will join you at the *spaws*,' &c. &c. The above mode of expression seems to be held in peculiar favour by this writer, for the second volume begins thus: 'Perhaps some of my readers may wish to follow the steps of Julia, *as such* I shall present them with a letter,' &c.: but we confess that we were rather inclined to join another party of readers who are mentioned in p. 187., 'Enough, *cries* my fair readers, of them;' and *as such* we take leave of the story: which is improbable without being fanciful; and in which the observations meant to be moral and religious are so trite and wearisome, that, to borrow the sentiment of an old epigram, "Religion dreads a friend" who thus asserts her cause.

Art. 20. *The Hero;* or The Adventures of a Night, a Romance. Translated from the Arabic into Iroquese; from the Iroquese into Hottentot; from the Hottentot into French; and from the French into English. 12mo. 2 Vols. 8s. Boards. Allman. 1817.

This burlesque on modern romances would have been entertaining if it had been compressed into one volume, but its length caused our smiles to be distended into yawns; and we do not think that justice is shewn to the celebrated Ann Radcliffe, whose romances are excellent in their way, and therefore should not have been classed with others which are here satirized.

Art. 21. *Le Chateau de St. Valérie*, &c.; *i. e.* The Castle of St. Valerie, a Tale founded on Facts, which occurred during the Revolution. By Madame Metaal Backkar, formerly Herbster; Author of "The Cavern," "Evenings in London," &c. 12mo. 4s. 6d. sewed. Dulau and Co. 1817.

Not for the first time does this lady now present us with a lively and feeling description of some of those scenes of horror, and exertions of fortitude, to which the French Revolution gave rise. It produced indeed

> "All monstrous, all prodigious things;"

and such of them as are introduced into the present story may render it less fit for very young readers than were Madame Backkar's former productions. The example of Corisandre, also, who deceives her aunt because she is cross, must be deemed objectionable; and the patience with which Mons. D'Arbel remains ignorant, during many years, of the fate of his wife and infant, will be incompatible, we presume, with every fair reader's notions of an affectionate husband.

Art. 22. *Family Annals*, or The Sisters. By Mary Hays, Author of "The Brothers," "Female Biography," &c. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Simpkin and Marshall. 1817.

A moral tale, affording some useful warnings to young ladies.

POLITICS.

Art. 23. *The Speech of Henry Brougham*, Esq. M.P. in the House of Commons, March 13th, 1817, on the State of the Nation. Second Edition. 8vo. pp. 82. Ridgways.

The importance of the topics introduced in this speech is such as to justify a notice of it at this comparatively late period; particularly as the distress, which forms its main subject, has by no means arrived at its close. Mr. Brougham began by stating the great decrease of our mercantile shipping in the last year, the quantity employed being less by 826,000 tons than in 1815; and he then proceeded to describe the hardships of the various persons engaged in the iron-trade, many of whom at that time did not earn above five shillings per week. The case of these persons, as we learn from very recent accounts, is now less melancholy, though it is still far from being comfortable.—This affecting detail was followed by an exhibition of the depression of the cotton-trade, and others: but the important part of the speech was not so much that which depicted the magnitude of our distress as that which related to the means of relief. Mr. B. is desirous that we should new-model our commercial code in all that regards bounties, discouragements, and prohibitions; and that we should proceed on the plan of laying trade as open as it can be made, imposing taxes only for the purpose of revenue, never for the sake of encouraging one branch in preference to another. Unfortunately, such a change, however desirable, or required by the sound principles of commerce, must not be attempted but by slow degrees; our capital and our habits having received a direction which cannot safely be altered on a sudden. No rational mind can doubt the impolicy of taking the wines of Portugal in preference to those of France, as the latter country would otherwise be enabled to become the best customer for our manufactures: but, clear as this may be to those who have had the opportunities of education and reflection, the case is very different with the majority of the nation, and time must be allowed for the removal of their prepossessions.

The point on which we differ most from Mr. Brougham regards the importance of Spanish America; a country as yet very thinly peopled, and in our opinion incapable of affording large returns for our manufactures. We cordially wish success to the colonists in their struggle for independence, and shall be most happy to enter into a commercial connection with them when they imitate the industrious example of their brethren of the Northern States: but, till that time, we must keep in recollection the enormous losses sustained (see M. R. vol. lxxii. p. 337.) by our exporting merchants, and anxiously warn our countrymen from again overstocking this precarious market.—Mr. B. concludes with several forcible observations on the ruinous tendency of undue taxation, and on the benefit that might be expected from a diminution of certain duties; in the hope that, the price being lower, the extended consumption would produce an equal or a greater revenue. In all this Mr. B. has our cordial assent; since nothing, we are assured, would be productive of greater relief than the practical application of these ideas, on a plan of considerable extent, and in conformity to the example of the commutation adopted in the case of tea at the end of the American war.

Art. 24. *Observations for the Use of Landed Gentlemen,* on the present State and future Prospects of the British Farmer. By Rusticus. 8vo. pp. 81. Edinburgh, Blackwood; London, Murray. 1817.

Rusticus discovers much more knowlege of the subject than those generally evince who address themselves to the public through the humble medium of an ephemeral tract; and he is evidently conversant both with the practical routine of agriculture and with the works of eminent writers. He begins by treating of the amount of a farmer's capital, and by correcting the exaggerated notions which have prevailed of late years in that respect. Surveyors are accustomed to calculate 10l. per acre as necessary to do justice to land, even when a considerable part is kept in pasturage: but the fact is that the farmers are possessed of no such sums, being in the habit of taking credit for various articles used by them, and of delaying the payment until a fund is provided by the sale of the crop. Again, although times were, generally speaking, highly favourable to the farmers during the war, the increase of price was accompanied by a corresponding increase of labour and taxes, and was followed, at no great distance, by a rise of rents. If we add to this the enhancement of all agricultural tools, &c., with a general disposition on the part of the farmers to lay out their money on improvements, we need not be surprized that, in the hour of trial, the pecuniary means of our farmers were found so inadequate to the struggle. Two years of low prices, and a deficient crop in a third, form an amount of loss which they are not likely to recover for a length of time.

The subject of the second section is the often-discussed theme of the corn-laws, which leads the writer to notice the principal causes of the late extension of our home-produce. This extension is owing not so much to the additional quantity of land brought into tillage, as to the improved culture of that which has long been under the plough; as well as to the large and progressively increasing supplies received from Ireland, since the importation of Irish corn was laid open in 1806. The object of the pamphlet being to persuade our land-holders of the necessity of a general and permanent reduction of rent, it enters into the plan of the writer to estimate very lightly the operation of the corn-laws. Such bills afford, he admits, a temporary relief to the farmer, but the eventual benefit rests with the proprietor: but he does not object, like many other agricultural writers, to that very important clause in the late act which permits the warehousing at all times of foreign corn; being aware that no abuse is likely to be made of this privilege in the case of a commodity so bulky and so liable to waste. Moreover, were this clause to be repealed, the merchant might still accomplish the same object by warehousing corn in foreign granaries. In these views he has our cordial concurrence; as well as in the very judicious arguments brought forwards (p. 43.) against all bounties on exportation. A more questionable part of the tract is that (p. 63. *et seq.*) in which the author presents us with his objections to the plan of regulating rents by reference to the price of corn; a plan certainly not admissible if the rent be varied from year to year, but which is by no means undeserving of attention if it should embrace a series of years, and be founded on a calculation comprehending various kinds of grain.

These and several other arguments, which our limits do not permit us to notice, are all introductory to the main object of the writer; viz. an estimate of the scale of reduction which landholders ought in his opinion to adopt, not merely from principles of humanity but from motives of interest. In the northern part of the kingdom, farms are almost always held on lease; so that the tenant cannot, as in many counties of England, give notice to quit on the occurrence of a change of circumstances; he is bound by law to go on as long as he has any property remaining: but to force him to such an extremity would be both cruel and impolitic, in as much as it would have the effect of extinguishing, by the forced sale of his implements and other parts of his farming-stock, that capital to which the land-holder looks for the future cultivation of his ground. The advice to reduce income is by no means palatable to any class of the community: but the land-holder has no reason to complain on comparing his condition with that of the annuitant, of the naval or military officer, of the trader or manufacturer. The extent of sacrifice required should, in the opinion of this writer, be a return to the prices of 1802; a season in which land had considerably advanced, without reaching the extreme prices of recent years; and this, in Scotland, would imply an abatement of 25 or 30 per cent. No calculation is attempted for England; and in course the ratio would be very different when we consider the great discrepancies (according to situations) in the ratio of enhancement: but, speaking generally, it is likely to be rather under than over the line drawn for our fellow-subjects in the North.

We are sorry that this able and argumentative composition is deficient in one material respect; — that is, the writer has taken very little pains to make the different parts of the reasoning follow in their succession; and in some particular passages (as p. 38.) the attention of the reader is quite fatigued with the diffuseness and consequent obscurity of the style. Still, the publication deserves to rank greatly above the common run of pamphlets; as may be seen on a mere reference to its beginning and its conclusion, which, by an odd coincidence, are much better than the middle of the tract.

Art. 25. *Prosperity Restored;* or, Reflections on the Cause of the Public Distresses, and on the only Means of relieving them. By the Author of the "Remedy, or Thoughts on the present Distresses." 8vo. pp. 222. Sewed. Baldwin and Co. 1817.

We have here one of the most elaborate and at the same time most singular of the long list of pamphlets produced by the present emergency; the author discovering at times very sound notions and an exemption from current prejudices, while on other occasions he deals out erroneous views with a lavish hand and with the gravest conviction of his own accuracy. He appears to deem himself superior to all subordinate aids, such as previously arranging his materials and dividing them into chapters or sections; since he commits his thoughts to writing exactly as they occur, and disdains to restrain his happy fluency for the sake of the insignificant advantage that might be derived from a revisal and fresh collocation of his reasonings. As it would exhaust the patience of the most laborious reviewer to supply this defect, and to exhibit a systematic analysis of this multifarious production, we must content ourselves with a cursory notice of its merits and demerits. In several points, the writer is very right, such as in asserting that an extreme fall in the price of corn is replete with eventual injury to the *consumers:* but what a contrast is exhibited by other parts, in which the effect of taxation is compared to the effects of improved machinery, and a new impost is said to do no more injury to the country than the introduction of a threshing machine to the labourers of a particular district? All our misfortunes are owing, in the opinion of this writer, to 'the action of circumstances on our currency;' and the Bullion-Committee is declared to have been more prejudicial to the country than our long contest, with Bonaparte. The true way, says the author, of restoring our currency to an efficient state is to extend the Bank-restriction-act for *ten years;* and to make the Bank issue a quantity of additional notes on bonds, bills, and other securities, at five per cent. interest. Most people are of opinion that the Bank has dealt rather largely in the way of issues: but this idea has no weight with the present author; and, though money be now so plentiful that mercantile bills are currently discounted for less than five per cent., he cannot help regretting that the public continues blind to the want of an additional circulation, and that no one should have thought of increasing it, when 'a single act of parliament would have created a thousand millions in an hour!'

Art. 26. *Cursory Hints on the Application of Public Subscriptions,* in providing Employment and Relief for the Labouring Classes. In a Letter to the Editor of "The Times." By a Member of the University of Oxford. 8vo. 1s. Murray. 1817.

Those, and those only, who are doomed to toil through the pages of new publications can form an idea of the gratification afforded to a reviewer, by passing from the ordinary *farrago* of the press to a tract of superior interest! If we cannot say that the one before us is by any means a finished composition, for it seems to have been written straight forwards and with little attention to method, yet the views which it contains are marked by knowlege, reflection, and benevolence. The writer is anxious that, in providing employment for the labouring classes, we should avoid interfering with the established master-tradesmen, and that we should select for them work of such a kind as would not otherwise be executed. An ample field will be found for this sort of culture in public local improvements, which it is no one person's duty in particular to undertake, and which could scarcely have been an object to any existing trade.

'It becomes of the greater consequence,' says the writer, 'that what is done be well directed. Erroneous views and ill-chosen plans may throw a neighbourhood into embarrassment and collision, with much jealous, discontented feeling. The very industry of the country may be employed to its harm and its generosity encrease its burdens. Charity formerly affected no plan; it gave freely, and meant nothing more. Now that it pretends to act upon thought, it subjects itself to rules and takes more reason along with it. It should understand its own limited powers, and take its measures accordingly. It should wish to close its commission as soon as possible. It should therefore endeavour to keep the master and capitalist in every branch (who is the proper and direct patron of the labourer and mechanic) as strong and efficient as possible.'

The rate of wages to be given under the patronage of public funds ought, on the most humane considerations, to be low; because, if it were otherwise, the subscriptions would soon be found inadequate. The choice of the work should also be very simple; because some of the workmen will be aukward, and all will be under the eye of a relaxed control, — inferior in regularity and vigilance to that which a commanding personal interest would inspire. Similar reasons lead the writer to question the policy of what are currently called 'cheap shops;' which supplant, to a certain extent, the ordinary dealers in the commodity, and disguise to the consumer the real price of the article: creating perhaps an indiscreet consumption, or causing a premature drain of the supply. 'Let us always remember,' he adds, 'that the only effectual relief in a case of high price is to be sought in the conduct of the lower orders. Theirs is the great demand and theirs the great consumption; — example from above is the beautiful and reconciling authority for parsimonious forbearance; but example is only the beginning of the account.'

Such are a few brief specimens of the elegant and judicious observations which flow so easily from the pen of this writer.

Art. 27. *England may be extricated from her Difficulties,* consistently with the strictest Principles of Policy, Honour, and Justice. By a Country Gentleman. 8vo. pp. 60. 2s. 6d. Hatchard.

Like many other country-gentlemen, this individual of that body is highly ministerial: but he performs his part so aukwardly, that the " lords of the ascendant" can have no great reason to congratulate themselves on his co-operation. He begins with a re-capiture-capitulation of the causes of our distress, and dwells with a singular propensity to repetition on the imprudence of our farming brethren in launching forth in the day of their prosperity, and bringing up their daughters to play music and figure in foreign dances. One of his plans for remedying the unfortunate embarrassment of the present day is a treaty of commerce with the Continent, on the plan not of leaving merchants at perfect liberty, but of a rigid balance of exports and imports, viz. that we should buy from our neighbours corn or other produce exactly in proportion as they should take our manufactures. Another equally sagacious recommendation is that of reviving the income-tax; after which, and a few more happy discoveries, the author concludes with the significant assurance that these are all that are wanting to extricate 'England from her difficulties.'

Art. 28. *The State of the Country discussed,* in a Number of Questions and Answers; by which some Principles of Political Œconomy are explained and enforced. The whole being an Argument for the Abolition of Sinecures, and for Parliamentary Reform; addressed to all who feel an Interest in the Welfare and Prosperity of the Country. By Mercator. 8vo. pp. 88. 2s. 6d. Hunter. 1817.

The worst parts of this pamphlet are the passages prominently set forth in the title as directed to the abolition of sinecures and of parliamentary reform; these topics, at least the latter, requiring the pen of a writer far superior to Mercator. The rest of the tract is occupied with an exposition of the principles of political economy, and conveys several useful notions in a clear and popular form; beginning with an explanation of the causes of the present distress, and passing on to questions connected with the corn-laws, the price of labour, the condition of the farmers, the effect of excessive taxation, &c. We have often heard of an odd inequality in the productions of the same writer, but we have seldom seen it more curiously exemplified than in the case before us, the preface and the concluding passages being much inferior to the rest of the pamphlet.

Art. 29. *The National Debt in its true Colours,* with Plans for its Extinction by honest Means. By William Frend, Esq. M.A. Actuary to the Rock Life Assurance Company, and Author of "Evening Amusements," &c. 8vo. pp. 36. Mawman. 1817.

The pressure of public distress seems to have induced Mr. F. to suspend for an interval his astronomical labours, and to direct his calculating powers to keep up the spirits of his countrymen. This little tract does not contain any estimate of the amount of the national debt, or any attempt to lessen the current notion of its magnitude; the author being satisfied that the discharge of the principal is a very remote question, and that we may be well pleased if we pay the dividends regularly and lay the basis of an eventual liquidation. He has no doubt of our being able to pay these dividends, notwithstanding all our embarrassments; and, if we cannot coincide with him respecting the expected aid from public subscription, we agree cordially with his suggestions (pp. 33, 34.) on another point, we mean the nature of the work to be given out for the employment of the poor. We also join most sincerely in the censure, we had almost said the indignation, which he repeatedly expresses against those unblushing advisers, who speak of breaking faith with the public creditor and wiping off our responsibility with a "spunge."

NATURAL HISTORY.

Art. 30. *Elements of the Natural History of the Animal Kingdom:* comprising the Characters of the whole [all the] Genera, and of the most remarkable Species, particularly those that are Natives of Britain; with the principal Circumstances of their History and Manners. By C. Stewart, Member of the Linnæan and Wernerian Societies. The Second Edition. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 4s. sewed. Longman and Co. 1817.

So long since as in the xlth volume of our New Series, (p. 247.) we entered, at some length, into the consideration of this useful introduction to the study of animated nature. Mr. Stewart, who, we are informed, is a zealous cultivator of this important department of knowlege, now puts his name to the title, and has not been inattentive to some of our friendly suggestions. 'In the class Mammalia, and in that of Birds, he has adopted the disposition of Blumenbach, a German zoologist of great eminence; he has made a separate class of the Mollusca, which is placed immediately after the Fishes; and he has, with Cuvier and others, disjoined the crustaceous animals from the class of insects, in which they had been included by Linnæus.' The whole, as now enlarged and improved, forms a respectable and popular guide to those who are desirous of commencing the study of zoology.

Art. 31. *Appendix to the First Edition of an Introduction to Entomology:* or Elements of the Natural History of Insects: with Plates. By William Kirby, M.A. F.L.S., Rector of Barham, and William Spence, Esq. F.L.S. Vol. I. Comprising the additional Matter inserted in the Second Edition. 8vo. pp. 30. Sewed. Longman and Co. 1816.

These supplementary pages farther illustrate the ravages committed by certain species of the insect-tribes on vegetables and animals, and include a few instances of the larvæ of some of the coleopterous and dipterous orders infesting the human subject. The examples are mostly taken either from the writings of respectable naturalists, or from the personal communication of individuals whose testimony will not be readily impeached.

The *Scotophaga ceparum* is thus characterized: 'Cinereous, clothed with distant black hairs, proceeding, particularly in the thorax, from a black point. Legs ingrescent. Back of the abdomen of the male with an interrupted black vitta down the middle. Wings immaculate. Poisers and alulæ pale yellow. Length, three and a half lines.' The larva of this newly discovered species is said to prove very injurious to onions, especially in light soils.

In the xith vol. of the Linnæan Transactions, Dr. Leach seems to have first recorded the perforating activity of his *Limnoria terebrans;* and we are here presented with more alarming details of its destructive industry, which is always exercised on timber in salt water. We are not prepared to assert that this little submarine borer has *not* been imported from America: but the mere circumstance of its recent discovery is not conclusive of the affirmative of such a supposition; while its residence on the *Bell-rock* would rather intimate that it is indigenous to our own seas.

A second volume of this *Introduction* has appeared, to which we hope soon to attend.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 32. *Farewell Sermons of some of the most eminent of the Nonconformist Ministers,* delivered at the Period of their Ejectment by the Act of Uniformity in the Year 1662. To which is prefixed a Historical and Biographical Preface. Crown 8vo. pp. 449. 11s. Boards. Gale and Co. 1816.

"Some of the Nonconformists," says Mr. Neal, speaking of the proceedings on the Act of Uniformity, "quitted their stations in the church before the 24th August, as Mr. Baxter and others, with an intent to let all the ministers in England know their resolution before hand. Others about London preached their farewell sermons the Sunday before Bartholomew day; several of which were afterwards collected into a volume and printed with their effigies in the title-page; as the reverend Drs. Manton, Bates, Jacomb, Calamy, Matthew Mead, and others. The like was done in several counties of England, and such a passionate zeal for the welfare of their people ran through their sermons, as dissolved their audiences into tears." (Vol. i. p. 382.) The anonymous editor of the volume now before us has not stated whether it be a reprint of that to which Neal refers; and indeed we perceive no great marks of his accuracy and diligence in other respects, in his editorial office. The Greek and Latin quotations which occur are frequently mis-spelt; the biographical notices are very meagre; and his own style is neither grammatical nor pure. E. g.: 'The convulsions which have for a series of years *shook* the foundation of thrones — have *resulted* not only in universal peace but in general improvement.'

The re-appearance of these discourses will doubtless gratify those by whom their authors are regarded as the confessors and martyrs of their own faith: but the general reader, who considers only what such an occasion as that on which they were delivered might be expected to call forth, will probably be disappointed. Several causes conspire to make the pulpit-oratory of these times, both in the church and among the Non-conformists, unsuitable to modern taste; such as the prevalence of the phrases of a technical theology, the profusion and perversion of Scriptural language and allusion, the scholastic minuteness of subdivision, and the great change in the English language which has made their words and constructions obsolete. How different a place in general literature do the great preachers of the age of Charles II. hold, from their contemporaries of the court of Louis XIV.! While Bossuet and Massillon continue to be models of French style, we read Taylor and Barrow very much like authors in a dead language.

As a practical exhortation, we think that Mr. Baxter's discourse is one of the best in the volume: but much unaffected dignity appears in the conclusion of Dr. Bates's sermon.

'I know you expect I should say something as to my non-conformity. I shall say only thus much. It is neither fancy, faction, nor humour, that makes me not to comply, but merely for fear of offending God. And if after the best means used for my illumination; as prayer to God, discourse, study, I am not able to be satisfied concerning the lawfulness of what is required; if it be my unhappiness to be in error, surely men will have no reason to be angry with me in this world, and I hope God will pardon me in the next.'

The following passage from Mr. Watson's sermon is perfectly characteristic of the times:

'Ninthly, get your hearts screwed up above the world, "set your affections upon things above," Col. iii. 5. We may see the face of the moon in the water, but the moon is fixed above in the firmament: so, though a Christian walk here below, yet his heart should be fixed above in heaven. There is our best kindred, our purest joy, our mansion-house. Oh! let our hearts be above, it is the best and the sweetest kind of life. The higher the bird flies the sweeter it sings, and the higher the heart is raised above the world the sweeter joy it hath. The eagle that flies in the air is not stung by the serpent. Those whose hearts are elevated above the lower region of this world are not stung with the vexations and disquietments that others are, but are full of joy and contentment.

'Tenthly, trade much in the promises. The promises are great supports to faith. Faith lives in a promise, as fish lives in the water. The promises are both comforting and quickening, they are *mitralia Evangelii*, the very breast of the Gospel; as the child by sucking the breasts gets strength, so faith by sucking the breast of a promise gets strength and revives. The promises of God are bladders to keep us from sinking when we come into the waters of affliction. The promises "are sweet clusters of grapes that grow upon Christ the true vine;" O! trade much in the promises, there is no condition that you can be in but you have a promise. The promises are like manna, that suit themselves to every Christian palate.'

MEDICINE, &c.

Art. 33. *Pharmacopœia Collegii Regalis Medicorum Londinensis*, 1809. *Editio altera.* 8vo. pp. 215. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co.

Art. 34. *The Pharmacopœia of the Royal College of Physicians of* London, 1809, translated into English, with Notes, &c. The Third Edition. By Richard Powell, M.D. &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 484. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co.

We made our remarks at full length on the new Pharmacopœia of the London College on its first appearance, and we did not scruple to point out many circumstances in it which we thought were imperfections, as well as a few instances of gross inaccuracy. About the former, a difference of opinion might prevail, and the points were such as to afford a fair object for discussion: but, with respect to the latter, only one sentiment could exist. A national work, like that in question, should have been exempt from any defect which might have been prevented by taking advantage of the information not merely of the members of the corporate body from which it proceeded, but of all men of science who were able to contribute to its improvement. Still more culpable than any inaccuracies of the kind to which we are alluding, were the typographical errors with which the volume abounded; and these consisted not merely in the mis-placement of a word or a letter, which might be at once obvious to the eye, so that no mistake with respect to the sense could be occasioned, but it happened, by a kind of singular misfortune, that some of these errors attached to figures denoting the strength or proportion of compounds: especially in two preparations in which, of all others in the whole work, correctness was peculiarly desirable.

A second and third edition have, however, successively appeared, both of the Pharmacopœia itself and of Dr. Powell's translation; in which, it is to be presumed, the errors are corrected, and the most obvious defects supplied. We cannot, however, commend the temper with which the Doctor's preface to this third edition is written. It betrays great irritability of feeling, and a consciousness of the existence of errors which it was necessary to rectify, but which he felt a strong reluctance to acknowlege.

'It will be seen that the alterations adopted refer, first to some important processes, to which reasonable objections have certainly been urged, on the score either of manipulation or of product, as, for instance, in the preparation of Antimonium tartarizatum, which though it answered repeatedly according to the former process, upon a small scale, before the committee, has certainly failed upon a large one, and under other circumstances: secondly, to some changes in the names of substances, as in giving up that principle (which was before considered to be sufficiently distinctive) by which *sub* and *super* were only employed where both the salts were used pharmaceutically for the purpose of distinguishing between them, without regarding the actual relation of their constituent parts: so that the salt which was at first named carbonate of ammonia is now named, as it really is, a subcarbonate: thirdly, to the introduction of new articles, which have been sparingly adopted: fourthly, to the restoration of some which had stood in the Pharmacopœia of 1787 and been omitted; and lastly, in a very few omissions from the last edition. Although these alterations have been made after a mature and impartial deliberation, there probably will be many persons to whose ideas they may be neither sufficient nor satisfactory, and who will have sufficient confidence in their own opinion to hold it as matter of faith, that no other can be right or deserve to be adopted.'

In another part, he speaks of 'the abuse of others,' of 'personal attacks,' of being 'attacked with a virulence beyond even that of sectarian controversy;' with other expressions which can proceed only from a man who writes under the impression of anger.

In this edition, we believe that many of the more gross and obvious inaccuracies are corrected, and some improvements are unquestionably introduced: but still we regard the Pharmacopœia as very far from exhibiting that state of perfection which the science of this age and country might have accomplished. Indeed, what could have been expected from a body legally representing the medical profession, but virtually excluding the greatest part of the individuals who are eminent for their learning and information? All extra-collegiate suggestions are viewed with a jealous eye, and are considered as acts of hostility against the privileged body; they are resisted, as far as it is possible to oppose them; and they are received with a bad grace, and in an indirect manner, when their necessity becomes too apparent to be any longer denied. With respect to Dr. Powell's translation, we must observe that it is still remarkably inaccurate: at the end, is a list of 'errata to be amended,' consisting of not fewer than 30 articles; and some of them are of considerable importance, not merely literal, but affecting the sense of the passages in which they occur.

CORRESPONDENCE.

A "*Constant Reader*," of whom our notice has been accidentally delayed, has given us a very good statement of the reasons that should induce the trustees of Savings Banks to make a modification of their plan, so far as to render the depositors proprietors of the stock, instead of considering *themselves* in the light of proprietors, and of course under the obligation to make good the money lodged in their hands, even should the funds experience a fall. He quotes with this view the example of the Bath-Institution, where the rule is to keep back a sixth of the dividend to defray the necessary expences; a charge which will decrease according to the accumulation of the general fund. Though the hazard of a fall in the stocks should not be great, still, as no liability beyond that of punctual discharge of the business ought to rest with the trustees, we willingly join our correspondent in recommending the above hint to their consideration.

It is not within our province to take notice of the communication forwarded to us by Mr. Galignani, junior.

We regret the delay in our report of the works mentioned in Mr. J. B. B.'s letter, which has been occasioned by the long illness and finally the decease of two members of our board.

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For AUGUST, 1817.

Art. I. *An Account of the Natives of the Tonga Islands, in the South Pacific Ocean;* with an original Grammar and Vocabulary of their Language; compiled and arranged from the extensive Communications of Mr. William Mariner, several Years resident in those Islands. By John Martin, M.D. 8vo. 2 Vols. 1l. 4s. Boards. Murray. 1817.

The Tonga Isles, a numerous and extensive groupe in the Pacific Ocean, situated westward of Otaheite, nearly midway between that island and the east coast of New Holland, were discovered by the Dutch navigator Abel Jansen Tasman, in 1643; who gave to the principal of them, which was low land like Holland, the name of Amsterdam, but which by the natives is called Tonga-taboo. They were not again recognized by Europeans till the second voyage of our great navigator Captain Cook; who, in reference to the amicable intercourse which took place between him and the natives, denominated them the Friendly Islands. Since that period, numerous have been the voyages made thither by Europeans and Americans; whose published accounts, including the present, furnish ample descriptions of the islands, of the natives, and of their customs: from which might be formed a tolerably connected history of the most material events that have befallen this extraordinary people, (an epithet which the reader will find justified by the sequel,) within the last forty years.

Of the islands in the Pacific Ocean, it has been the lot of Otaheite to have hitherto attained the greatest share of celebrity with Europeans: but, as we increase our acquaintance with the characters of the inhabitants of others, those of Otaheite lose the ascendancy. It is entirely within just bounds to remark that as great a difference of character prevails between the inhabitants of particular islands in the South Sea as between any two nations of Europe; for example, as between the Russians and the Sicilians: — or, to make comparison with antient times, the Otaheiteans may be regarded as the Sybarites, and the islanders among whom Mr. Mar-

Mr. Mariner resided as the Spartans, of the other hemisphere. The Otaheiteans might serve with advantage as mourners at the funeral of a Tonga-hero, because no people in the world would more pathetically perform the exterior of lamentation; and the Tonga-men might be spared the dreadful self-inflictions by which they manifest their affection or respect for a departed chief.

From Dr. Martin's introduction to this narrative, we learn that William Mariner is the son of Mr. Magnus Mariner, now living near the Commercial Road, London; both father and son being mariners by profession as well as by name. William first went to sea in 1805, being then in his fourteenth year, and having received the advantage of education during five years at a good boarding-school. His first embarkation was in a large privateer, destined for the South Seas, commanded by a Captain Duck, who had served an apprenticeship with his father. The narrative of his voyage, now before us, and the descriptions of all that he saw, are not written by himself; and this circumstance, on the first notice of it, we felt as matter of regret, which was increased on finding by the preface that his education must have rendered him competent to the task: the remarks of a voyager who is his own journalist being, in general, beyond comparison, more satisfactory than those which are collected and given at second hand. The fidelity of the editor, however, and the great pains taken by him, to which the public are indebted for this account, oblige us to acknowlege ourselves satisfied on this head. In the introduction, he states that in 1811 he accidentally heard that Mr. William Mariner had been a resident at the Friendly Islands during the space of four years; and his curiosity being thus excited, he solicited his acquaintance, and 'discovered in the course of three or four interviews, that the information he was able to communicate concerning the people with whom he had associated, was more extensive than any that had yet appeared before the public. To my enquiries,' adds Dr. M., 'respecting his intentions of publishing, he replied, that having been for several years out of the habit of either writing or reading, he was apprehensive his endeavours would fail of doing justice to the subject, and modestly proposed to submit it to my consideration. In the mean time, circumstances called him to the West Indies, and on his return he brought me memoranda of the principal events of the Tonga Islands, in the order they happened during his residence there.' Dr. Martin undertook the composition and arrangement; and 'not a page was written without Mr.

Mariner being present, that he might be consulted in regard to every circumstance.'

It is not a little extraordinary that the accounts of two South-Sea-voyagers should be presented to the public within a few months of each other, under circumstances so similar as those of Archibald Campbell (see our last Review) and William Mariner; each written and edited by persons wholly unconnected with them or their adventures, until they accidentally came under their notice, and then attracted to the task only by the interest which the circumstances excited.

The ship in which Mr. Mariner sailed was named the *Port-au-Prince*, and was fitted out for the two-fold occupation of the whale-fishery and a cruise against the Spaniards in South America. Her success in the latter respect is lightly passed over as of small interest to the reader, and, as it turned out, of no account to the cruisers themselves. On the coast of California, the Captain died, and was succeeded in the command by Mr. Brown, the whaling-master. From the American coast, the *Port-au-Prince* sailed to the Sandwich Islands, where she remained a month; and the remarks respecting them are mixed with comments on Campbell's account. The number of white people on the single island of Woahoo is stated by Campbell to be nearly sixty: but in Mariner's time they were counted at ninety-four; and this rapid increase, on one island only, leads us to conjecture the probable consequence. It has lately been much surmized that the North American States, and also some of the European powers, have had it in contemplation to take possession of the Sandwich Islands; and this has in particular been conjectured of the Russians. The resort and settlement among the islands of so many European sailors, almost all veteran adventurers, and the use of fire-arms now introduced among the natives, may enable them to resist any force which a foreign power could conveniently employ in an attempt to usurp dominion over them and take possession of their land; — and so far it is well: — but, on the other hand, it is by no means improbable that these their newly adopted countrymen, whose residence among them is to be esteemed a security against foreign invasion, may themselves prove dangerous inmates. Campbell has remarked that the natives of the Sandwich Islands are not less fond than the white people of ardent spirits, the use of which has with many superseded that of their old favourite drink, the Kava; and Mariner relates that the King, to prevent excesses, allowed no stills but under the inspection of his own officers, 'all distilled spirit being his

property,

property, which he sold, or gave as favour, or reward, to whom he chose.'

Eight natives of Owhyhee entered as seamen on board the *Port-au-Prince*, and on the 29th of November, 1806, she anchored at Lefooga, one of the Tonga islands. In the course of that day, one of the Sandwich islanders spoke to Mr. Brown, cautioning him to be on his guard, and advised him not to admit any natives except the chiefs into the ship: but Brown disregarded the intimation, and, on its being repeated, threatened to flog the Sandwich islander for being troublesome. On the second day after this circumstance, the treachery of the natives was so essentially aided by the unpardonable negligence of the Captain, that the ship was surprised and taken; and, of fifty-two Englishmen belonging to her, twenty-six were killed, among whom was Brown himself. The Sandwich islanders had a hint given to them to keep out of harm's way. Mariner was in the steerage writing when the natives made their assault:

> 'Going to the hatchway for the sake of the light to mend a pen, he saw Mr. Dixon, one of the officers, standing on a gun, endeavouring, by his signs, to prevent more of the natives coming on board: at this moment he heard a loud shout from the Indians, and saw one of them knock Mr. Dixon down with a club: seeing now too clearly what was the matter, he turned about to run towards the gun-room, when an Indian caught hold of him by the hand; but luckily escaping from his grasp, he ran down the scuttle, and reached the gun-room, where he found the cooper: but considering the magazine to be the safest place, they ran immediately there; and having consulted what was best to be done, they came to the resolution of blowing up the vessel, and, like Samson of old, to sacrifice themselves and their enemies together.'

They had time, however, to reconsider the matter, and thought that they would take the chance of going at once on deck, and trusting to the mercy of their enemies. Mariner went first, and, presenting himself with his hands open, asked whether they meant to kill him: when an Otaheite-man who had lived some time at the Friendly Islands, and had been an active adviser in the plan to surprise the ship, told him in broken English that he would not be hurt, as the chiefs were already in possession.

> 'The first object that struck Mr. Mariner's sight, on coming upon deck, was enough to thrill the stoutest heart: there sat upon the companion a short squab naked figure, of about fifty years of age, with a seaman's jacket, soaked with blood, thrown over one shoulder, on the other rested his iron-wood club, spattered with blood and brains,—and what increased the frightfulness of his appearance was a constant blinking with one of his eyes, and a hor-

rible convulsive motion with one side of his mouth. On another part of the deck there lay twenty-two bodies perfectly naked, and arranged side by side in even order. They were so dreadfully bruised and battered about the head, that only two or three of them could be recognized. At this time a man had just counted them, and was reporting the number to the chief, who sat in the hammock-nettings; immediately after which they began to throw them over-board. Mr. Mariner and the cooper were now brought into the presence of the chief, who looked at them awhile and smiled, probably on account of their dirty appearance. Mr. Mariner was then given in charge to a petty chief to be taken on shore, but the cooper was detained on board.'

The King of the Tonga islands at this time was Finow, or Feenow; who, in the account of Captain Cook's visit to the Friendly Islands in his last voyage, appears the most conspicuous of any among the natives, though he was then only a subordinate chief, and had but just attained the age of manhood. He had taken particular notice of Mariner on first seeing him, and had given directions that, if it were found necessary to kill the white men, *his* life should be spared; and he always continued in favour and was kept near Finow. The remainder of the crew were either taken under the care of other chiefs, or left to shift for themselves among the natives; though Tooi-tooi, the Otaheitean before mentioned, endeavoured to persuade Finow to kill them all, lest another ship should arrive, and, hearing from them the fate of the *Port-au-Prince*, should take revenge. Another person escaped unhurt, of too remarkable a description not to be mentioned. This was an infant son of Stevenson, the convict who escaped from Botany Bay and first introduced the art of distilling at the Sandwich islands; and the father had delivered the child to the care of the sail-maker of the *Port-au-Prince*, to be carried to his relations in Scotland for education. After the capture of the ship, a daughter of Finow took the boy into her protection. The survivors of the crew were now made to get the ship under sail and work her close to the shore, where she was run aground to be broken up for the iron-work; and the casks in the hold, full or empty, were staved to get at the iron hoops. The ground-tier-casks were full of seal and whale oil; and, as the hoops were knocked off, the oil burst forth, and suffocated eight of the natives.

'In consequence of the great discharge of oil, the water in the hold was covered with it, to the depth of two feet. Two men, who had struggled out of this body of water and oil, strongly expressed their amazement (as they afterwards explained themselves to Mr. Mariner, when he understood their language) at the difficulty they experienced in rising through the oil: they could swim in the water below easily enough, but as soon as they emerged from the water into the stratum of oil above, the less specific g vity of the latter rendered their ascent difficult.'

The Tonga people are represented in former voyages, well as by Mariner, to be gifted with excellent natural pow superior to those of any other islanders in the South S It is remarked in the Missionary Voyage, speaking of Pelew islanders, "if the few we saw are admitted to b specimen of the whole, they are in our opinion inferior external appearance to the Marquesans, the Society, Friendly Islanders;—they have not the stature and sy metry of the two first, and fall far short of the muscul bold, and manly look of the latter." In the present pict of the Tonga people, we see them in calamitous times civil dissension. When Captain Cook visited these islan the whole were under the rule of a single chief, who ca by hereditary succession to the sovereignty, and they w then in a state of internal tranquillity: but the tyran of the king, whose will seems to have been law, caused downfall, and a breach in the order of lineal succession. the odium brought on him by his conduct, Finow the pres chief, and his brother, took advantage; and perhaps th thought that self-defence required them to adopt measures this kind. Finow, however, did not effect the deposition the tyrant, and his own assumption of the supreme digni without treachery and spilling of blood; nor could he maint himself in this station but by a desperate and cruel war; a the greater part of Tonga-taboo, the principal island, wo not acknowlege his authority. Under such circumstanc the energies of a courageous people will be continually call forth, sometimes to gratify rapacity, sometimes by deadly hat and thirst of vengeance, and sometimes, with still less co punction, for ambitious ends; the moral and humane feelin are smothered or deadened by ungovernable passions; and same people, often the same individual, will be found, acco ing as they or he may be influenced by the impression immediate circumstances, capable of deceit and treachery, intrepidity and magnanimity, of compassion, of cruelty, a of generosity.

Several of the crew of the *Port-au-Prince*, who were obli to seek their subsistence, were at first distressed for food.

'Sometimes food was brought to them, but often not; son times they were invited by the natives to walk into their hou and eat with them; but frequently they seemed to be quite glected, and were reduced to the necessity of procuring wh they wanted by stealth. At length, through Tooi Tooi's int pretation, Mr. Mariner made known their wants to the ki

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of invocation, to bring down some evil or plague upon the country.'

A jealousy of this kind proved fatal to the English missionaries who were left by the ship Duff at the Tonga islands, which, it must be allowed, was much increased by their contracted manners. Mariner received an account of this event from Finow.

For several years before Mariner's arrival, Finow had made an annual descent with all his force on the island Tonga-taboo, where he committed great ravages, and particularly in laying waste the lands of the chiefs: but still they held out against him; and their principal motive for not submitting appears to have been a want of confidence in his sincerity. He had shewn great inveteracy against all who had been attached to the late King, and many of them who fell into his power were put to death in various ways: some being bound in old canoes, which were carried out to sea and scuttled; and some tied naked to stakes driven in the ground, and left to starve to death. 'Notwithstanding their exposure to the raging heat of the sun, several of them bore their torments with the greatest fortitude, although lingering till the eighth day; others of weaker constitution died in three or four days. Ever since that time, the natives of the place superstitiously believe that they can hear their groans frequently at different times during the night: — but this no doubt is occasioned by the roaring of the surf at a distance, or of the sea in subterraneous caverns, which, working upon the imagination, to a certain extent resembles the groans of dying people.' — The island Vavaoo likewise held out, but was at length reduced; and in that war Finow murdered all the chiefs whom he made prisoners in battle.

The natives of Tonga have bows and arrows, and javelins: but their principal weapon is the iron-wood club, about three feet in length, of which many samples are among the South-Sea curiosities in the British Museum. In their public games, they use clubs nearly similar in shape and size, made of green branches of the cocoa-nut tree; and in these combats their blows are dealt with inconceivable rapidity, and generally continued till the fall of one of the parties. On the arrival of the first period after Mariner had been among them for the annual descent on the island Tonga, Finow collected fifty sailing canoes, four of the largest having each a caronnade mounted that formerly belonged to the *Port-au-Prince*; and he had nine Englishmen armed with muskets. In the way to Tonga, contrary winds obliged the fleet to stop at a small island, and Finow took this opportunity to make a review of his forces. Most of the men were painted and dressed after the manner of the Feejee or Fiji islanders. Finow sat with several chiefs in a house on a green plot called the Marly, being a place appropriated for various public purposes.

> 'Each warrior of note ran singly close up to Finow, and striking his club violently on the ground, cried out "This is the club for ———," mentioning the name of some individual enemy whom he meant particularly to seek out and engage; others running up in the same way, exclaimed, "Fear not, Finow; no sooner shall we land at Tonga than here is the club with which I will kill any one who dares to fight against us." Finow and the chiefs thanked them for their sentiments of love and loyalty, and then he addressed them in a speech to the following purpose: "Be brave in battle; fear not death: it is far better to die in war than to live to be assassinated at home, or to die of a lingering disease."'

Before they reached Tonga, the fleet was joined by many other canoes, making in all 170: but the number of men contained in them is not stated. They marched against a fortress which had resisted every attempt to conquer it for eleven years: but, being now attacked by cannon and musketry, it was in a few hours no longer defensible, and was abandoned by the besieged, who left 350 of their party killed on the spot. A specimen of cannibalism is related in the account of this expedition. Some young chiefs, who it is said had contracted the manners of the Fiji islanders, proposed 'to kill their prisoners, and then roast and eat them. This proposal was readily agreed to, by some, because they liked this sort of diet, and by others because they wanted to try it, thinking it a manly and warlike habit; there was also another motive, viz. a great scarcity of provisions; for some canoes which had been sent to the Hapai islands for provisions were unaccountably detained, and the garrison was already threatened with distress. Some of the prisoners were soon dispatched: their flesh was cut up into small portions, washed with sea-water, wrapped up in plantain leaves, and roasted under hot stones: two or three were embowelled and baked whole, the same as a pig.'

Mr. Mariner ascribes to the Fiji people the disgrace of having taught the Tongas this abominable practice of eating their prisoners. The Fiji islanders are a different race from those of Tonga, are reckoned more fierce and more cunning, and, in their features as well as in the woolliness of their hair, they partake of the negro cast. Many of the Tonga-men, we are told, suffered much distress because they would not relieve themselves by joining in the unnatural repast offered to them:

but sufficient reason may be given for believing that cannibalism has occasionally been practised at most, or all, of the South-Sea islands. Indeed, it may be doubted whether it has been absolutely unknown to any people in some early stage of society.

Shortly after the Tonga-expedition, Finow was induced by some suspicion to contrive the death of his brother; which seems to be one of the worst of the many barbarous acts committed by him. The island Vavaoo, which had been reduced, now revolted; and Finow proceeded against it with an army consisting of 5000 men, having with them 1000 women, in 50 large canoes. On approaching a fortress which was to be attacked, Finow ordered a mataboole (warrior) 'to advance forward and request an armistice, that each party might take leave of what friends and relations they might have among their opponents *; which being granted, a number came out of the garrison to take a farewell of their relatives, — perhaps the last farewell of those who were about to fight against them. Here ensued a moving scene; many tears were shed on both sides, and many a last embrace exchanged.' This scene lasted two hours, when it was broken off by one of the opposite party shooting an arrow at Mr. Mariner, who killed him with his musket, and the battle commenced.

The chief of the Vavaoo people who had revolted was a woman, and the aunt of Finow; and one of his wives also, on some occasion of jealousy, or of love for her relations, absconded and went over to the enemy. Finow sent to his aunt, Toe Omoo, a request to have his wife returned, 'stating that it was a war between men and not women; but his remonstrances had no effect.' In revenge for this neglect, Finow watched for an opportunity to retaliate on the enemy's women; it soon occurred; and of thirty who were surprised in an inlet collecting shell-fish, five were killed, and thirteen taken prisoners; the rest escaped. Finow had ordered that all who fell into the hands of the party sent by him should be killed on the spot: but the captors were persuaded to shew mercy.

' * In a civil war at these islands, as well as at other places, it often happens that sons have to fight against their fathers, and brothers against their brothers; but what renders this circumstance still more common at Tonga, is the adherence to an old established custom, which binds every man in honour to join the cause of that chief on whose island he happens to be at the time the war is declared, unless some circumstance, as particular relationship between great men, engages the chief of the island, upon earnest request, to give him liberty to depart.'

'When they arrived at Neafoo, there happened a strong dispute between several relations of the prisoners, and those who had taken them; the former arguing that they had a claim to the women, according to the old Tonga custom, which decrees, that all persons shall be in the service of their older and superior relations, if those relations think proper to employ them: the captors, on the other hand, strenuously grounded their claims on the right of conquest. The dispute ran very high, and they referred it to Finow, who replied, that he should not interfere in it, and they might settle it themselves as well as they could, for they had no right to bring the prisoners there at all to create disturbances, but should have knocked out their brains according to his orders. At length he condescended to give his opinion, viz. that the most proper method would be, under these circumstances, to cut each woman in two, and give one half to her relation, and the other to the captor. The affair, however, was amicably settled, without having recourse to such bloody measures; some being given up to their relatives, and others retained, upon terms mutually agreeable to all parties.'

A reconciliation between Finow and his aunt, and with the Vavaoo people, was effected by his address, and they again acknowleged him as their chief. Now, for the first time, Finow is found released from the business and cares of war and warlike preparation, and at sufficient leisure to take recreation. He went, in consequence, to an island named Hoonga, to enjoy the sport of shooting birds and rats with arrows. At Hoonga is a curious cavern, the story of the discovery of which forms a beautiful little romance; and, without entering on the narrative, we may relate the manner in which Mariner became acquainted with the cavern, which is curious and diverting. It is situated on the western coast of Hoonga.

'Finow and his friends, being on this part of the island, proposed one afternoon on a sudden thought to go into this cavern, and drink cava. Mr. Mariner was not with them at the time this proposal was made; but happening to come down a little while after to the shore, and seeing some of the young chiefs diving into the water, one after another, and not rise again, he was a little surprised, and enquired of the last, who was just preparing to take the same step, what they were about? "Follow me," said he, "and I will take you where you have never been before; and where Finow, and his chiefs and matabooles, are now assembled." Mr. Mariner, supposing it to be the famous cavern of which he had heard some account, without any further hesitation, prepared himself to follow his companion, who dived into the water, and he after him, and, guided by the light reflected from his heels, entered the opening in the rock, and rose into the cavern. He was no sooner above the surface of the water than, sure enough, he heard the voices of the king and his friends: being directed by his guide, he climbed upon a jutting portion of rock, and sat down. All the light that came into this place was reflected from the bottom, and was sufficent, after remaining about five minutes, to show objects with some little distinctness.'

The editor, we think, has unnecessarily puzzled himself in conjecturing how the cavern is supplied with change of air sufficient for the purpose of respiration; since it is probable that the light, that came into the place 'to shew objects with some little distinctness,' found its way through crooked fissures which did not admit of the sky being seen. Mariner contrived to light a torch in the cavern.

A disposition for the romantic is apparent in the colloquial phrases of the Tonga-people, of which examples are given in the second volume; and their travellers deem themselves privileged, as much as did any of the old continental *voyageurs.* Cow Mooala, who had been absent from the Tonga islands fourteen years, returned while Mariner was with Finow. He had been forced by tempests to an island named Fotoona, which he described as situated to the north-west of Hamoa, one of M. de Bougainville's Navigator's Islands; sufficiently distant from the Tonga islands to bear the weight of any circumstance which a traveller might choose to lay on it, without danger of disproof. Among other details, Cow Mooala related that the chief of Foroona goes into battle armed with a species of glove, in which claws made of shark's teeth are fixed. 'He was a man of remarkable bodily strength, and was always accustomed to fight with this sort of gauntlet in preference to the pike, not however to tear open the bowels of his enemy, but merely to catch a firmer hold of him whilst he threw him on his face; he would then place his foot upon the small of his back, and, seizing fast hold of the hair of his head, so bend his spine as to break it: with little men or boys however he would not take so much trouble, but laying them across his knee, as one would a stick, break their backs without farther ceremony!' The same traveller also said that he was present at a feast given at the Fiji islands on some triumphant occasion, in which two hundred men, barbecued like hogs, were served up! This wonderful traveller, on his return to the Tonga islands after so long an absence, was feasted by Finow, and greeted with presents by all the chiefs. Of the wonders of Fiji, however, the following happened within Mariner's notice:

'Among Finow's followers, there was a certain chief, a native of Fiji, who about that period fell ill and died: his wife, who was also a native of Fiji, in accordance with the religious notions in which she had been brought up, considered it a breach of duty to outlive him; she therefore desired to be strangled. All her Tonga friends endeavoured to dissuade her from what appeared to them so unnecessary and useless an act; but no! she was determined, she said, to fulfil her duty, in defect of which she should never be happy in her mind,—the hotooas of Fiji would punish her; and thus, by living, she should only incur fresh miseries. Her friends, finding all remonstrance in vain, allowed her to do as she pleased: she accordingly laid herself down on the ground by the side of her deceased husband, with her face upwards; and desiring a couple of Fiji men to perform their duty, they put a band of gnatoo round her neck, and, pulling at each end, soon ended her existence. In the evening they were buried together in the same grave, in a sitting posture, according to the Fiji custom. Mr. Mariner happened not to be present when she was strangled, but arrived in time to see them buried, and to hear the account of the recent event from those who had been eye-witnesses.'

We shall lay before our readers one more sample of the warlike encounters of the Tonga-people, in which will be seen their great readiness and dexterity at the game of life and death.

Teoo Cava, chief of the fortress of Hihifo in the island of Tonga-taboo, having made his peace with Finow, fancied himself strong enough to dispossess one of his nearer neighbours, and

'Resolved to lay siege to the garrison of Nookoo Nookoo: he was successful in his attack, and took it with an inconsiderable loss of men. This being done, he determined, contrary to the advice of his matabooles, to garrison both fortresses. The reason the matabooles gave for the impolicy of this conduct, was the readiness with which the enemy made their retreat; which they thought argued their intentions of returning speedily, with fresh strength. Ambition, and desire of larger possessions, blinding him, however, to his own proper interests, he neglected sage counsel; and, dividing his forces, reserved the choicest half for his own personal safety in the garrison of Nookoo Nookoo, and commissioned the rest to defend Hihifo. He had with him Toobo Malohi and his warriors. In the course of the following night, the enemy came down again, and made a desperate attack upon them: having resolved to burn the place to the ground, they had appointed four hundred men to effect their purpose, each of whom was armed with a spear, and a lighted torch fixed at about a foot from the point of it. At a signal every man threw his flaming weapon at the fencing, or into the garrison, and by the aid of this new invention, the place was set fire to, in several points at once. The besieged, with the view of rendering themselves more secure, had removed all the draw-bridges over the dry ditch round the fencing, except one; there was no ready means of escape, therefore, from the conflagration, which soon spread far and wide, except by one narrow path: hundreds consequently were compelled to leap into the ditch, the sides of which were too steep to climb. Among these was Teoo Cava, who, with several other great chiefs and warriors, managed to get out, by climbing up the backs of those whose fidelity prompted them to lend their superiors this friendly assistance at the utmost peril of their own lives. Teoo Cava, having thus got out of the ditch, was making the best of his way unarmed to Hihifo, when he was met by a native of Fiji, belonging to the enemy's party, who gave him the watch-word, which he was unable to answer; instantly the Fiji warrior struck him so violent a blow on the head with his club, that he buried it in his brains: the club had got so locked into the broken skull, that he could not immediately withdraw it; and he probably would have left it there, but discovering what a great chief he had killed, his club from that moment became exceedingly valuable to him; the pledge as it were of future great successes, as long as he kept it in his possession: the triumph of his feelings, therefore, prevented him from seeing or hearing another man, who was fast approaching; and whilst he was in the act of disengaging his club, his own brains were knocked out, and his speculations as suddenly destroyed, by one of Teoo Cava's men, whose swiftness of foot brought him just in time to revenge his fallen chief, by laying his enemy prostrate by his side: but dangers were thickening round him and he was compelled to leave the body of Teoo Cava on the field, and secure his own existence by a speedy flight to Hihifo; where all who succeeded in making their escape quickly arrived.'

Some years before this event, an American ship named *The Duke of Portland* had been surprised by this same Teoo Cava, and most of the crew were murdered: but, among the persons saved were two women, a white and a black. Eliza Mosey, the white woman, became the wife of Teoo Cava, 'who was much envied by the other chiefs on that account!' She made her escape in another ship, and arrived at Port Jackson: but, after having remained there some time, she returned to the Tonga islands in a vessel that went for the purpose of procuring a cargo of pork.

Toobo Malohi, mentioned in the attack of the fortress of Nookoo Nookoo, having escaped, went and placed himself under the protection of Finow; whom 'he entertained with an account of different transactions at Tonga, relating what conspiracies had been devised, what battles had been fought, what brave chiefs and warriors had fallen. Every time he mentioned the death of a hero, Finow struck his breast with his fist, exclaiming, "What a warrior has fallen in a useless war!"'

It is said that the people of Tonga are much in the habit of serious contemplation; and, where bread is produced without plowing or sowing, and cloth without weaving, the necessaries of life are obtained with so small an expence of time that much is left for meditation. During the whole reign of Finow, indeed, they would meditate chiefly on stratagems of hostility: but in peaceable times they contemplated pastoral scenes, it may be said, with the eye and the mind of a poet or a philosopher. In one of their most popular songs, which Dr. Martin and Mr. Mariner have translated, are the following expressions: 'Let us repair to the other side of the island to contemplate the setting sun; there let us listen to the warbling of the birds. How much happier shall we be thus employed, than when engaged in the troublesome and insipid affairs of life.'—Again; 'How destructive is war! How it has opened untimely graves for departed heroes!'—'Our chiefs can no longer enjoy the sweet pleasure of wandering alone by moonlight in search of their mistresses: but let us banish sorrow from our hearts: since we are at war we must think and act like the people of Fiji.'

Finow's youngest daughter, named Saw-awmai Lalangi, (which signifies *descended from the sky*,) when about six or seven years of age, became ill. To propitiate the patron god of the family of the Hows, of which both Finow and his predecessor were members, she was conveyed to a building consecrated to that divinity; and a daily offering was made of a dressed hog, that her life might be spared. The chief, however, finding that his daughter grew worse, ordered his large canoes to be launched, and conveyed her to the island Hoonga, where resided a priest who was supposed to be inspired by Finow's tutelar god. Here, likewise, invocations and offerings were daily made; and the matabooles frequently went to inquire of the priest privately how the god would determine. On one of these occasions, Finow not being present, the priest declared that the illness of the child was for the common good. Finow, being informed of this, thus addressed the priest at the consultation on the following morning:

'"If the gods have any resentment against us, let the whole weight of vengeance fall on my head: I fear not their vengeance,—but spare my child; and I earnestly intreat you, *Toobó Totâi*, to exert all your influence with the other gods, that I alone may suffer all the punishment they desire to inflict." To this the god returned no answer, and the priest retiring among the people, the company separated.

'As soon as Finow arrived at his house, his spirits no doubt much agitated, and his pride, in all probability, much hurt, he laid down on his mat, and felt himself much indisposed. His illness hourly increased, and feeling, as he said, a secret presentiment of approaching death, his female attendants ran out and informed his chiefs and matabooles, who in consequence immediately repaired to his house, and found him unable to speak; for as soon as he saw them he endeavoured in vain to give utterance to his ideas, and seemed choked by the vehemence of his inward emotions. At length a flood of tears coming to his relief, he acknowledged the justice of the gods, but lamented greatly that he was about to meet his death on a bed of sickness instead of going to brave it in the field of battle. After a little pause, he said in a calm but firm tone of voice, "I tremble at the approaching fate of my country: for I perceive plainly, that after my death the state of affairs will be much altered for the worse. I have had daily proofs that the obedience of my subjects is not excited by their love but by their fears."

'Several chiefs and matabooles who, owing to the crowd, were not able to get into the house, but overheard what passed, went immediately to the priest of *Toobó Totái*, and presenting him cava root, sat down before him. An old mataboole then addressed him, stating that they had firm belief in the power which the gods possessed of inflicting what punishment they chose upon mortals: but he entreated the god to use his influence with the other powers of Bolótoo, that they might not take offence at what Finow had said in the morning, which was merely spoken on the impulse of the moment, when warmly agitated with sentiments of affection for his daughter, and not from any real disrespect to the gods: he supplicated him also to havé regard to the general good of the islands, and not by depriving them of Finow, to involve the whole nation in anarchy and confusion. The priest remained some time in silence, and was much affected: at length he announced that the gods of Bolotoo had, for a long time past, debated among themselves in regard to the punishment they should inflict upon Finow, for the many instances he had shewn of disobedience to religious precepts and of exceeding disrespect for divine power; that they had at first resolved upon his death, but that he (Toobó Totái) having repeatedly interceded in his behalf, some of the other gods also took his part; in consequence of which there arose very violent dissensions in Bolótoo; not, as he explained to them, by actual fighting, for gods are immortal, and can neither be killed, wounded nor hurt, but by urgent and potent arguments, which had occasioned, he said, the late high winds and tremendous thunder. That they had consequently come to a resolution of saving his life, seeing that his death would be a greater evil to his people than to himself, and of punishing him in another and perhaps more severe way, viz. by the death of his most dear and beloved daughter, who must therefore be inevitably taken from him: for as it had been decreed, beyond all revocation, that either he or his daughter must die, her life could not be saved without taking away his. As a sort of proof of this decree, he bade them remark that whilst Finow was at this time ill, his daughter was much better, and comparatively full of life and spirits, (which was actually the case). To-morrow, he said, her father would be tolerably well, for the gods had not decreed his immediate death, but only a temporary illness, to impress on his mind a sense of their power, and then his daughter would relapse, and be as bad or worse than ever.

'The priest being now silent, the chiefs and mataboolès left him, with a strong belief of the truths he had been telling them. When they arrived at Finow's house they found him somewhat better, but did not communicate what they had heard from his priest. This however was soon rumoured among the other chiefs and matabooles, in the king's *cook-house*, where they generally resort for cava, and which from custom has become a sort of rendezvous to pick up or retail news. Mr. Mariner, who had been with Finow (his patron, father, and protector,) during his illness, coming to the *cook-house* and hearing what the priest had said, went out of curiosity to Finow's daughter, and was surprised to find her sitting up, eating ripe bananas, and in very good spirits, talking at intervals to her female attendants.

'In the evening Finow, feeling himself for the most part recovered, visited his daughter, and found her much worse than, as he was informed, she had been in the morning. He now expressed his intention of passing the night at her house, which he accordingly did. When he awoke in the morning he felt himself perfectly recovered; but going to his daughter's mat, he found, to his utmost grief, that she was worse than ever.'

By the style and manner of this narrative, it may be perceived that Mariner participated in some measure in the belief of the natives; which, be it observed in this case, has in it nothing of absurdity, but accords with an universal principle, common to every religion, that impiety may justly bring down divine vengeance: since Finow had long been noted for his want of respect for the gods of Tonga. The pious exertions made with the intention of saving the child probably hastened her dissolution; for, in their anxiety, she was removed from one consecrated place to another till she ceased to exist. After this event, contrary to the general custom at the Tonga islands, Finow ordered that no appearance of sorrow or lamentation should be made; notwithstanding which injunction, the attendants occasionally gave vent to their grief. The conduct of the King in this particular was regarded as an expression of his anger against his gods. On the 20th day, the people were assembled by his directions; and the body, inclosed in a polished coffin made in the shape of a canoe, was deposited in the fytooka or burying-place. Kava and provisions were then distributed.

'On this extraordinary occasion, which the caprice of Finow rendered a scene of rejoicing rather than of mourning, after the provisions and cava were shared out, they began the entertainments of wrestling and boxing as usual at festivals. After the men had shown their strength and dexterity in these feats by single engagements, the King gave orders that all the women who resided north of the *mooa* should arrange themselves on one side, ready to combat all the women who resided south of the *mooa*, who were to arrange themselves on the other. It was not a very rare occurrence for women to fight in pairs on occasions of rejoicing; but a general engagement like this, with about fifteen hundred women on each side, was a thing altogether new, and beyond all precedent, and quite unexpected at a funeral ceremony. The women, however, readily engaged, and kept up the contest, with obstinate bravery, for about an hour, without a foot of ground being lost or gained on either side; nor would the battle have subsided then, if Finow, seeing the persevering courage of these heroines, had not ordered them to desist, the battle having cost them several sprained ancles and broken arms. They fought with a great deal of steadiness, and gave fair hits, without pulling one another's hair. The men now divided themselves in like manner into two parties, and began a general engagement, which was persisted in a considerable time with much fury, till at length that party which belonged to the side of the island on which Finow dwelt began to give way: instantly he rushed from the house in which he was seated, to reanimate his men by his presence and exertions, which he effected to such a degree, that the opposite party in their turn fell back, and were completely beaten off the ground.'

Whether Finow received any hurt in this contest, or whether his late indisposition returned, is doubtful: but he had no sooner retired and lain down to rest from his fatigue, than he found himself ill, and in a short time was speechless. To appease the gods, a child of Finow by a female attendant was strangled (without his knowlege) as a sacrifice, to procure his recovery. A melancholy story is also related, in the early part of this book, of a woman at the island Lefooga, who for many years had been afflicted with insanity, occasioned by excessive grief on her child being taken from her to be strangled as an offering to the gods for the recovery of his sick father. The poor woman being in this state was deemed troublesome, and Finow, wishing her out of the way, ordered Mariner to shoot her: but our countryman remonstrated, and she was spared for that time. A few days afterward, however, as she was walking on the beach, Finow gave the like direction to a Sandwich islander, who, with 'ready acquiescence,' levelled his piece and shot her dead on the spot. We find in a former voyage that the offer of human sacrifices for the sick was not confined to the murder of infants.

Finow never recovered so far as to regain the use of speech, and very soon breathed his last. Calculating according to the opinion formed when Captain Cook was at the Friendly Islands, his age must have been about fifty-five at the time of his decease. 'He was in stature six feet two inches; stout and muscular; his head erect and bold; his shoulders broad and well made; his limbs well set, strong, and graceful in action; his body not corpulent, but muscular; his hair of a jet black and curly, yet agreeably so, without being woolly; his forehead remarkably high; his brow bold and intelligent, with a little austerity; his eye large and penetrating.' — 'His voice was loud, and his pronunciation remarkably distinct: when he spoke in anger or when he laughed, it was so loud as to be heard at an incredible distance.' * To this portraiture we may add what is remarked of Finow in an earlier part of the book, which certainly comes near his true character: — 'He was a man of a deep and designing spirit; always willing to favour any conspiracy that promised to advance his interests, but exceedingly cautious how he let any body know his own intentions!'

A maxim of despotic governments, that it is right policy to kill and destroy whomsoever or whatsoever is likely to be dangerous, is one from which Finow had swerved in very few instances. He seized unexpectedly on the bravest of the Vavaoo chiefs and warriors who in the late wars had been active against him, and put them to death: one of whom, being taken out to sea bound in the bottom of a crazy canoe, did not cease in the utmost indignation to pour forth execrations against his destroyer, till prevented by the water coming up to his mouth. Great similarity of character may be traced between Finow and the chief his predecessor, whom he displaced; and of whom we remarked in our review of the Missionary Voyage of the Ship *Duff*, (M. R. Vol. xxxii. p. 7.) that "on a more extensive stage, he might have flourished as the first consul of a *great nation*:" which we consider as worth notice here, because it strongly corroborates the descriptions given by Mr. Mariner of the Tonga chiefs.

We are informed in this work that, when Captain Cook was at the Friendly Islands, (as he had then named them,) at which time Toogoo Ahoo (in the Missionary Voyage written Tooga Howe,) was king, a plan was laid to attack him and his officers while on shore; by the loss of whom the natives supposed that the crews in the ships would be so much weakened as to be mastered with ease.

> 'Some of the chiefs proposed to invite the captain and his officers to a grand bo-mēē, (a night-dance by torch-light,) and at a signal to

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'* His eloquence was such, that many of his enemies were afraid to listen to him lest they should be led to view the subject in a light prejudicial to their interest.—In his house, giving orders about domestic arrangements, his voice was uncommonly mild, and very low.'

massacre him, his officers, and all the marines; but Finow (the late king's father) objected to this, as the darkness of the night would be unfavourable to their operations in taking the two vessels, and proposed rather that it should be done by day, and that they should seize the opportunity of making the attack on the occasion of a grand entertainment which was shortly to be given to him in honour of his arrival, and after they were all destroyed, the men, who would naturally come in search of him, were to be conducted to the further part of the island under pretence that he was there, and *they* were then to be destroyed in like manner: and thus the two ships, their crews being so weakened, might be taken (as they supposed) with ease. The entertainment was prepared, and Captain Cook and several officers being invited were present; it happened, however, a little before the appointed time when the signal was to be given, that most of the chiefs still expressed their opinion that the night-time would have been better than the day, and Finow, finding that the majority were of this opinion, was much vexed, and immediately forbad it to be done at all. Thus, no signal being given, the amusements went on without interruption, and Captain Cook and his officers were much pleased with their entertainment, acknowledging it to be far better than any other that they had received at the Friendly Islands.'

This anecdote will probably be regarded as the most remarkable of the innumerable warnings held out to navigators, not to place unlimited confidence in an uncivilized people, unless obliged by necessity. The greatest difference in principle between a civilized and a savage state of society is in the superior abhorrence of treachery and cruelty.

By the exercise of great circumspection and moderation, Finow's eldest son succeeded to his father's possessions and dignity, without any disturbance.

We have dwelt rather longer on the descriptions in Mr. Mariner's narrative than we usually permit such subjects to detain us, and on many points we have been obliged to be wholly silent: but some matters yet remain which may not be omitted.

Polytheism, which is a system of religion the least liable to be approved on reflection, is that which seems the most natural for a people in the first glimmering of their reason to adopt. Finow, who, besides being a contemplative man, had conversed much with Europeans, felt no great respect for the divinities reverenced by his countrymen, except when he was influenced by apprehension. Among traditions which have been preserved by the Tonga-people, is one which gives cause to imagine that a part of the Mosaical account of the creation of the world has in some way reached the natives of the Tonga islands. They believe that Tangaloa, a divinity who presided over arts and inventions, being willing that

Tonga should be inhabited by intelligent beings, said to his two sons, " Go, and take your two wives, and dwell in the world of Tonga:" that they went accordingly: that the youngest, who was industrious and wise, made axes and cloth: that the elder, who was indolent, and envied the works of his brother, at length ' meeting his brother walking struck him till he was dead.' Tangaloa then spoke to the wicked one, saying, " You [and your race] shall be black because your minds are evil!"

' Mr. Mariner took particular pains to make enquiries respecting the above extraordinary story, with a view to discover whether it was only a corrupted relation of the Mosaic account; and he found that it was not universally known to the Tonga people. Most of the chiefs and matabooles were acquainted with it, but the bulk of the people seemed totally ignorant of it. This led him at first to suspect that the chiefs had obtained the leading facts from some of our modern missionaries, and had interwoven it with their own notions; but the oldest men affirmed their positive belief that it was an ancient traditionary record, and that it was founded in truth.'

The editor observes it is strange that they should credit an account which seems so much to degrade themselves: but this effect they by no means admit. They think that the gods of the white men are more powerful than the gods of Tonga; and they acknowlege that Europeans are more knowing, and have more disposition to do good, than themselves: ' but they do not allow that they lie under a malediction; on the contrary, they maintain that they are far superior to us in personal beauty, and though we have more instruments and riches, they think that they could make a better use of them if they only had them in their possession. Of the chiefs and matabooles who related the foregoing account, some believed it firmly, others left it as they found it, none positively disbelieved it.'

This account of the peopling of Tonga has more the appearance of a received tradition, than of one which originated with themselves; and any communication from the missionaries must have been of too recent a date to have been considered as an antient tradition. It must therefore be supposed to have come to them from Asia, and is to be reckoned among the marks that may be enumerated of manners and customs which the Tonga-people appear to have derived from the East Indies. The title of *Daughter of the Sky* may, it is true, be as properly attributed to human vanity generally: but the widow who would be strangled, the flowery style of their songs, and the similitude which has been observed in the numerals of the South-Sea-languages to those of the Malays, are particulars which concur with the story above related of the two sons of Tangaloa, [Cain and Abel,] to shew that an intercourse has existed (and probably still exists, by a chain of communication of which the links might be traced,) between the Tonga islands and the East Indies.

Besides a copious vocabulary, Dr. Martin has added an endeavour to apply the rules of grammar to the Tonga-language. This, it must be acknowleged, was no easy matter in the case of a language which has never been written, nor (we imagine,) subjected to rule or restraint; and which appears to be much in a state of nature, the verbs having no inflections. In the example given of *aloo*, to go, the same word runs unchanged through their three tenses, and the accompanying auxiliary words are cumbrous. The most remarkable peculiarity that we have observed is their making use of a dual termination for their pronouns: but we must refer the deeper consideration of the Tonga-grammar to those who would benefit by the study, that is to say, whose pursuits give them a prospect of using the language.

Finow's son and successor was also a Finow, but was distinguished by the additional name of Fiji, from having been at the Fiji islands. He was not less friendly to Mariner than his father had been: but the arrival of a vessel from Port Jackson awakened in our countryman his wish for returning to his native land, and he effected his escape to the ship. Afterward, when on board in security, he had visits from many of the chiefs, and he parted from his Tonga friends, particularly from the King, with great kindness. He procured the release of some other Englishmen, but several preferred to remain with the Tonga-people.

The ship in which Mariner embarked sailed from Tonga to the Fiji islands, and anchored at one of them named Pau, which is noted for Sandal-wood of an excellent quality, and of which the Captain purchased from the natives 'several tons;' and a good trade is now carried on at this island with English and American ships, which go thither for that article. Many Englishmen and Americans were on the island Pau, who did not wish to come away. 'The language spoken here sounds different from the language of the Tonga-people, and more harsh to pronounce.'

Mr. Mariner landed in England in June 1811, after an absence of more than six years, and immediately went to London; where, while looking for his father's house, he was impressed and sent on board a tender: but his liberation was procured after a short detention.

It is superfluous to say that the Tonga islanders have interested us; and that the copious account of them, which is afforded in these volumes, is highly creditable to the ability and observation of the young man who was thus singularly thrown among them, and preserved among them during such a considerable period. We behold in them the natives of a country placed under a vertical sun, endowed with natural advantages both mental and corporeal, and with a degree of hardihood to endure and valour to undertake, that are equal to whatsoever is known of the inhabitants of the most vigour-giving climates; and who, in their capabilities of attainment, are to be ranked with the highest classes of our species. At the same time, we see them in a state of society and of morals so barbarous that they must be regarded as savages. Their great virtue is that which the Romans esteemed pre-eminent, *Fortitude;* while their great vice is the one that is most common to barbarians, and of all evil qualities the most base, *Treachery.* Yet, such as they are, the description given of them frequently reminds us of the heroes in the Iliad. In their wrestling matches, we fancy that we see the contest between Ulysses and Ajax Telamon; and the parallel is yet more striking in the interview held at the truce preceding a battle.

We recommend it to Dr. Martin to furnish a future edition of this book with a map of the Tonga islands, which might include the Fiji islands, and needs not be of greater extent. Such an illustration would afford satisfaction to the reader, while it increased the interest of the work; and the purchasers of the present edition might, at a small expence, be supplied with copies.

Art. II. *The Second Part of Armata.* 8vo. pp. 209. 8s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1817.

When we reviewed the former part of this work, which was called a *Fragment,* we compared it to some of those fine fragments of a sister art on which the world has long set a high value. Must we now talk of the ill success which has attended all attempts to restore to those noble relics the beauties of which the hands of time, and of other tasteless depredators, have deprived them? Perhaps we may drop the comparison, and remind the noble author, and our readers, how very seldom *Second Parts* have been found to satisfy the expectations which their more fortunate precursors had excited. Nothing is more difficult than for a writer to resemble himself, and to transfer to one class of subjects the style of thought and of expression to which other and very different topics gave birth. The former volume, it will be recollected, (see our Number for March last,) comprised the author's account and opinions of the government of Armata, and her national politics, both foreign and domestic. In the present, are discussed the state of society, public and private, including the topics of dress, taste, and manners; the laws and religion of the country; and the police of the capital.

The subject of society occupies five out of the seven chapters of which the volume consists. The first point is to equip the author in the habit of the country; which leads to some observations on an indiscriminating style of dress that has been introduced in modern times, and has confounded peers and barbers by assimilating their outward appearances. His friend is impatient to carry him to the capital, ludicrously called *Swaloal*, as we before remarked; and, to avoid delay in furnishing him with clothes, he suggests the expedient that the stranger should accept the suit of a friendly barber, never worn, which the owner had obligingly offered.

'When morning came, his impatient genius suggested to him a most rapid but seemingly indelicate escape from the further delay of my equipment, as he informed me, with the highest glee, that the barber, who had been setting his razors, overhearing our difficulties, had offered a suit of his own, never put on, and which, looking at our two persons, he said would fit me to a hair. —He now directed the young man in his own language to fetch them, saying to me in English, "This I can assure you is a most fortunate incident, as I could not have supplied you MYSELF, having nothing here but this coarse wrapper, my only covering in *the wilderness*," (for so I found afterwards he styled the whole country, or rather the whole universe, out of the sound of a celebrated bell in Swaloal, the name of which I have forgotten:) "HERE," he said, "I follow the custom of nature, the beasts of the field know where they are, and have but one suit."

'I was too much disconcerted by this apparently strange behaviour to attempt any interruption of this mortifying dispatch, but when it was quite out of reach I could not help saying, that I hoped I should be pardoned for wishing, if the expense would not be an objection, that I might be furnished with what we called, in England, the dress of *a gentleman*, instead of this young *barber*'s apparel, as I had no doubt there were different degrees in a country which his father had described to me as so highly civilized.

'"Undoubtedly," said Cathmor, (for this was the name of my companion,) "there are many degrees among us, more numerous, perhaps, than in any other nation, but there are no distinctions in our ordinary dresses; we have *gentlemen*, as you say you have in England, and, as you have just seen, we have *barbers* also; but which is the *gentleman* and which is the *barber* when you meet them in the streets, it has been long impossible for the nicest eye to discover, as our highest nobility and our lowest tradesmen dress exactly like one another: there is perhaps something now and then in air and manner, by which people *fancy* they may be distinguished, but in no other way whatsoever.—I expressed great surprise at this, and said that in *my country* such a system would be most unpopular; not from any pride in the higher orders, as the principles of equality, where they could practically or usefully exist, were liberally cherished in England, but because the *lower classes,* who might seem to be exalted, would, with *one voice,* exclaim against it, as injurious to trade, as destructive to manufactures, and a cruel oppression of the immense multitudes who only lived by hourly changing fashions, which circulate superfluities amongst the industrious poor; and though sumptuary laws were inconsistent with our free government, yet an English nobleman would be the subject of very unpleasant remarks, who did not maintain his pre-eminence even in his most ordinary appearance, for the circulation of wealth, and the encouragement of ingenious arts. "I could almost swear," he replied, "that you were describing *this very country* even less than *fifty years ago;* as I have heard from my father that, *even in his time,* persons of rank were stupid enough to wear lace and embroidery, and other expensive fabrics, in their daily habits, but we have a damned deal more taste now, and they are never beheld except in the palaces of princes, and when you see them there hereafter, you will think that, notwithstanding their absurd unwieldiness, the whole court was engaged in some distant military expedition, as every one of them wears a sword, and carries a kind of knapsack upon his back.—I am happy, however, the subject has been started, as I should have been much distressed if you had been left for a moment to imagine I had not intended to give you the full benefit of every distinction which a stranger of rank and honour ought to command."

'He then left me, but first taking me kindly by the hand, and saying he would return as soon as he had got rid of some vulgar people who were waiting to see him.—He had not been gone a moment when the barber re-appeared, but without the clothes: he walked about the room, without taking the smallest notice of me, until upon my friend's return, whom I had apprized of my disappointment, they came up to me together, laughing immoderately and *most obviously at my expense,* Cathmor holding his sides from the convulsion of his mirth, whilst he said, or rather attempted indistinctly to say to me, "My good friend, *this is not the barber,* as you imagined, but one of the highest of our *grandees,* who is come down to visit a relation on board the fleet."—What rendered this sufficiently absurd scene more completely ridiculous, was the return at the same moment of the actual *barber* himself; and when he had laid down his bundle, the nobleman and the shaver were like brothers; no more to be distinguished than twins are even by midwives at their births.

'Handy Dandy, which is the justice,
Which is the thief.—

I mean no kind of disrespect to the grandee of Armata or to his Double, by this *classical* quotation.

'At the conclusion of this laughable adventure, Morven, the father, joined us, and resumed the subject of *costume*, but upon a very different principle, saying to me gravely, and as if he was not quite pleased,—"I sent for this young man as an agreeable companion, to shew you the face of the country and its fashions, to which I am now quite unequal; but you must think for yourself on many subjects where his youth and inexperience would lead you far astray: the matter which he has been treating as a mere jest, is of great moment, so much so, that I am anxious to hear how it is considered with you, where wisdom seems to station every thing in its appointed place."'

This detail leads to some strictures on the style of dress in other countries, in which shabby frock-coats and brown scratch-wigs are ridiculed as the costume of judges; while the magnificence and luxury of the city-magistrates in their equipages, dresses, and entertainments, receive a due share of commendation. The remarks on the different importance of dress in a republican and a monarchical form of government, with which this chapter closes, are borrowed, we believe, from Montesquieu.

The next chapter presents an account of the mode of travelling, in a narration of the author's journey from the country-house of his friend Morven to the capital. In the course of this excursion, one of the horses is driven and used so unmercifully that he dies on the road; and thus we are brought into a long dissertation on cruelty to animals, in which an account is given of the attempts made at different times to legislate on that subject. The several topics in this discussion, with which readers in this country are sufficiently acquainted, are urged with considerable eloquence: but it contains nothing particularly new or striking. Fox-hunting next comes in for its share of censure; not so much on the score of its cruelty, as on account of the folly of preserving destructive and disgusting animals merely for purposes of sport.

'We now returned through the plantations by a different road. —I had a fowling-piece with me, the gift of Morven on my first landing, and, seeing an animal run by, with a smell as it passed me that almost produced suffocation, and carrying in his jaws a most beautiful bird, which he was bringing from a field where several bleturs and their young lay torn and mangled, I almost instinctively raised my gun to my shoulder to shoot him: but my companion, holding my arm, cried out with the utmost emotion, "What can you possibly mean?—How could we answer for such a dreadful breach of hospitality? It is a great favour, I assure you, to see the place, and would you return it by such an outrage as this?" I was almost petrified with surprise; and, holding fast my nose till the horrid effluvia had evaporated, I asked him how it could possibly be considered as an ungrateful trespass upon the lord of this domain to kill a most offensive wild-beast, detected in the murderous act of destroying his property.

"His killing the bleturs," said Cathmor, "was *perhaps incorrect;* but it is impossible below the Heavens to have unmixed blessings, and we must be contented to take every good with some alloy of evil. — Those animals, though they formerly infested the country, and still do a vast deal of mischief, are nevertheless bred and preserved at a very great expense for our sport, and you may guess how *impossible it would be to live without them,* when I inform you that we desert all those natural beauties you have been admiring, though we exhaust our fortunes to create and keep them up, — that we prefer the frosts and fogs of our rigorous climate to its most delicious sunshine, — and abandon even our public councils in the most arduous and critical conjunctures rather than not follow up *the closest scent* of what so much revolts your *ultra mundane nostrils.* — Do you wonder *now,*" he said, *as if he had just finished the demonstration of the plainest problem in Euclid,* "do you wonder *now,* my good friend, that the absent proprietor of this mansion would have started back with horror, when told of the outrage which I so fortunately averted?" I listened to all this with silent composure, and taking out my leathern snuff-box, which had fortunately defied sea-water, and in which there still remained some most excellent rappee for the refreshment of my *ultra mundane nostrils,* I put out my hand, under the pretence of thanking him, but in fact to take the chance of coming in contact with his pulse, as I was now quite convinced he was MAD. Another organ now came in for a full share of delight; as my *ears* were saluted on a sudden with a harsh, frightful, and continued yell, such as I had sometimes heard in the woods of America, when fires were lighted to keep back the wolves — so that if I had not known we were in a reclaimed district, I should have expected to be instantly devoured; and the more so as there was not a soul within a mile who could help us. — The cause soon became manifest in the persons of near a hundred large animals, more resembling our dog than any other creature, but, instead of being of some one hue, or shades of one, their skins appeared as if they were clouted with patches of different colours, which deformed them not a little. — My young companion seemed now quite enchanted, saying, "that as it was a natural propensity always to imagine something beyond realities, he had no doubt that what we were then hearing had given rise to the idea of the Music of the Spheres." — I made no answer, heartily wishing myself *among them,* without any apprehension of that kind of concert.'

Arrived at Swaloal, the friends enter into all the extravagant gaieties and amusements of the place. They first take their morning-airing in the Park, and the author is surprised at finding no company in those parts of it in which the lawns are verdant and the trees luxuriant:

'My young friend smiled at me, saying, I should very soon be gratified with a sight within the Royal precincts, far more inviting, which would fully account for the solitude that had surprized me; he added, that there would be but little difference between being buried under the turf in those solitary recesses which had filled me with such rapture, or rolling over them in the most costly equipage.—"Now, now," said he, as we rode onward, "now we come to the scene of true splendour and delight."—At this moment, being still galloping from impatience, we turned short round a dead wall, and the wind being very high, my hat was suddenly beat off, and my head entangled in what I took to be a market-woman's basket of flowers, but which turned out to be only the head-dress of a lady that had been blown out of an open carriage just at the corner we were turning.—As soon as this wreck was cleared away by my friend's assistance, and we were preparing to move forwards, we were involved all at once in a seemingly impenetrable whirlwind of dust and gravel, which, when mixed with the smoke driven down from the houses just above us, would have made the blackest assemblage of steam-engines at Birmingham or Wolverhampton appear like the gayest palaces lighted up with gas.—Through this dismal medium, my half-extinguished eyes (which so filled with earth in England would have given me a vote for Middlesex) could see only by short snatches sometimes the head of one horse and sometimes the tail of another, with now and then part of a carriage moving on at the pace of a funeral procession, which my friend told me, (for I could see nothing farther,) extended about a mile, but hemmed in on each side, with people riding or rather tumbling over one another. We were now and then stopped besides by vehicles, completely jammed, out of which we could see ladies disengaging themselves, or at least their head-dresses and drapery, looming, as sailors term it, through the mist, and, to keep up the metaphor, flapping against each other like sails and colours in a gale of wind at sea.'

At night they go to several large parties or assemblies; when all the ordinary topics of broken carriages, greased clothes, crowded stair-cases, and heated rooms, are unsparingly introduced. This caricature, we own, is rather too broad for our taste. We see nothing in these accounts which may not be found in twenty novels of modern dates; the wit is far-fetched, and not worth the carriage; and the style is low. At the same time we sincerely wish that these strictures, however regarded in Armata, may have the effect of introducing something of a better taste in circles nearer to ourselves, which at present too much resemble the parties and assemblies of the Armatans.*

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* In the present volume, the author has adopted the name of Armatans instead of Armatians. Would it be too vain in us to imagine that our remark led to this alteration?

In Chapter V. the writer enters into some more private society, which he finds extremely delightful; the men and still more the women who compose it being well informed, and all the domestic arrangements admirable. In the progress of this social intercourse, the author pays a visit to a nobleman residing at an antient mansion, distant only a mile and a half from the metropolis, where he is entertained with dignified hospitality, and meets society which draws from him the following animated portraits:

> 'I remained till it was near morning, and as the conversation became warm upon the interesting subject of Armatan freedom — I almost thought I heard the majestic commanding voice of Grey, enlightening our minds and compelling our conviction — the clear and nervous persuasion of Lansdowne — the dexterous pith and keen argumentative wit of Tierney — the comprehensive and splendid energy of Brougham — the pure and learned eloquence of Mackintosh — and all Scotland personified in the able, acute, powerful, unrelenting demand of Lauderdale upon our *well-earned* assent to what he said. — Nor can I thus call to mind a scene both as to time and place so distant, without reflecting upon *the Pleasures of Memory* and the delightful talents of the author.'

We are now carried to the different theatres and public places in the metropolis, on all of which appropriate observations are made. The traveller is also introduced to the philosophical and literary institutions, and was highly gratified to see 'the vigorous and capacious mind of man, casting off all the fetters and entanglements which impede it in the search after truth, vindicating the belief that we are formed after the image of God:' but at these he merely glances:

> 'To examine the wonders which chemistry and mechanics had accomplished amongst them would almost demand the skill that gave them birth. — They had discovered a power I am quite unable to describe, which, though when left at large insensibly mixes itself with the air, and scarcely lifts a feather in its ascent, would, when imprisoned, unhinge a world for its freedom. — Over this subtle and almost omnipotent agent they had gained a complete dominion, and, by a limited and wisely adjusted compression, to give it a safe direction, had obtained a momentum for their most ponderous engines, which neither wind nor water, nor any combinations of matter could have produced.
>
> 'May not politicians take a lesson from this? May they not learn from it that there is a restraint of liberty, which cannot safely be imposed; and that man must finally be free to the extent at least which Heaven has appointed for his happiness? — Like the constructors of those powerful engines, they may give health and vigour to their governments by the honest and judicious restraints of a liberal system of laws, but, if they transgress that just and necessary dominion, human nature, like the natural elements I have spoken of, will open a passage for itself till the invaded equilibrium is restored.'

Of the sixth chapter, the topics are the laws and religion of the country. On the former, we felt more than usually anxious to hear the supposed noble author's views and opinions; not being quite satisfied of the sincerity of his remark, that 'neither his education nor the habits of his life in his own country enabled him duly to comprehend' these subjects. He describes the legal constitution of Armata as derived, in its principles, from very high antiquity, for the most part remarkable for simplicity and precision: but its grand peculiarity being that the laws are administered by the people.

> 'The rules which govern property of every description through all its transmissions, and which prescribe the forms of legal remedies when it is invaded, cannot be left to the unsettled judgments of the most enlightened people, without bringing the utmost uncertainty upon all inheritances and titles.—*These* must always be the subjects of written codes, or recorded decisions, which learning alone can treasure up and apply.—The rights of individuals also, and their vindications when violated, must upon the same principles *be positively defined;* else no man could know what were his privileges, or in what manner to assert them. The people of Armata, from the very earliest times, were as well aware of this indispensable division between fact and law, as geographers are of the line by which they divide the hemispheres of our globe, and although invested, in many cases, with the power of deciding upon both, they uniformly respected the rules which referred the law to judicial determination, and the Judges possess all the authorities for protecting their legal jurisdictions.
>
> 'Crimes, in the same manner, must be defined by positive laws, or known through ancient customs which, by the force of decisions, have become equally positive; as otherwise no man could know what course he might justly pursue, or deliver himself from any snares which might be spread in his path. In this most important branch of jurisprudence, the good sense of the Armatan nation may be said to be summed up.'

These considerations have led to the distinction between *Law* and *Fact;* it being the province of the juridical tribunal (or Judges) to decide on the former, and of the popular tribunal (or jury) to determine the latter. That distinction, however, is not applicable to cases in which the *fact* derives its character of right or wrong from the *law*, as in the case of libel. The mention of this latter instance introduces an account of the arguments which have lately occurred on the subject of commitment by magistrates, and which must be fresh in the recollection of our readers: but, in Armata, it is the province of the popular tribunal not only to award the ultimate conviction or acquittal of a criminal, but even to decide whether he shall be placed in peril or not; though the powers necessary for the collection of an immense revenue have, in several instances, interfered with this branch of her jurisprudential arrangement. The traveller was surprized to learn that the authorities for the laws in this singular nation were not to be found collected in any one volume, 'which he might carry home under his arm,' but were only to be extracted, with great labour and pains, out of an immense library of volumes; and the usual imperfections of indexes to books of reference, and that which has been termed "the glorious uncertainty of the law," arising out of the conflicting authorities which too frequently occur, are illustrated by anecdotes and instances. We cannot entirely agree with the writer in the wish which he appears to entertain for an authoritative collection of the law; for, without entering deeply into a subject which is both difficult and dry, it appears to us that two strong reasons may be urged against entertaining any such project. In the first place, uniform experience, from the days of Justinian to those of Napoleon, appears to have shewn the futility of those collections which have been called *Codes;* and it seems impossible for human wisdom prospectively to found such a system as the course of events will not derange in time, and for the most part in a very short time. New cases will arise which must either be met by new measures of legislation, or decided by reasonings drawn from old rules: if the first of these alternatives be adopted, the law has no fixity; if the latter, it remains open to all the uncertainty of argument and refinement. A law consisting of a few simple, general, and acknowleged principles, with an indefinite number of instances of their developement and application, is always open to improvement;—is, in fact, always improving itself, by becoming, from its own elasticity, adapted to the state of society which it is designed to regulate:—whereas a stricter and more defined system tends only to impede the improvement of society. It is, in truth, the case with all sciences, as Bacon has long ago remarked, that they remain progressive towards perfection only while they are not subjected to the confinement of systems.—In the second place, as it is an admitted principle that the law in every state must be the occupation of a distinct *profession*, it appears to us that a law so open as that of Armata is described to be must be the best calculated to draw out the distinctions of its votaries; and to give to talent that pre-eminence which is its due, but which it could not always attain if the knowlege of the law were a mere exercise of memory, and the lawyer a mere "*cantor formularum, et syllabarum auceps.*"

The constitution and powers of a court resembling the Court of Chancery are next described and discussed: but its extensive jurisdiction over landed property is censured; and this remark introduces some others on the modern practice of conveyancing, to the intricacy and verbosity of which all the common objections are urged. The author considers this practice to have originated in the same cause which led to the extent of the equitable jurisdiction; namely, the construction put in the reigns of Henry VIII. and Elizabeth on the law technically termed *The Statute of Uses*, on which a discussion of some pages is here rather oddly introduced. We cannot accede to this opinion, so generally stated; on the contrary, we think that it can by no means be admitted that this antient determination of the courts of law has been the sole, or even the principal, cause of the intricacy in which the transfer and settlement of property (which form the subjects of conveyancing) are in modern times involved. This is a matter of which we can, in course, be presumed to have a mere general knowlege, and we are aware of the fearful hazard of the argument which we are maintaining: but it seems to us that, whenever this topic is discussed, it will be very material to consider whether the intricacy of our legal forms be not chiefly owing to a corresponding refinement in their subjects. In a nation so fully peopled as Armata, it will not be difficult to conceive that the ownership of almost every acre of land must, in fact, be divided between numerous proprietors; whose rights will assume every shape and character which ingenuity prompted by interest can invent, and cannot, therefore, be defined and assured but by equal ingenuity and corresponding complexity. Besides, an enterprising and projecting people will naturally take pleasure in inventing modes of entail and settlement of property, the effect of which is to extend the dominion of the human mind over the subjects of its passions. The system to which the celebrated determination in question has given rise (however erroneous or absurd that decision may have originally been) is now admirably adapted to facilitate this refined subdivision and *destination* of property; and, in point of fact, it is not brought into operation except for that purpose; for in all simple transfers of property, and other unembarrassed cases, it is quite out of the question. In this view of the matter, we cannot bring ourselves to think that the effects of what the author calls this *unexampled revolution* 'have been disastrous:' we even doubt much whether they were unforeseen; and it is not a little remarkable that this system has been found so convenient, that in modern times it has been applied to various descriptions of property, on which the decision here implicated had no effect whatever. 'The simplicity of antient deeds, and the clear and cheap evidence of public possession,' were, no doubt, well adapted to the state of society in which they prevailed: but they would be of little use in such society as the author, in the preceding chapters of this work, has described to exist in Armata.

Having been thus detained by these legal discussions, we must pass more hastily over the topics of police and religion. On the subject of mendicity, we extract a passage which is probably founded in fact:

'The charity of the fair Morvina was proverbial, and our doors had long been surrounded by the poor of every description.—There was an old man who peculiarly interested us, being one hundred and three years of age, confirmed by a certificate which seemed to be as old as himself; the writing being much torn, and the seal imperfect.—We were constantly attended also by a woman, who had lost her eyes from lightning, which were covered with black patches of silk, and by a man, her companion, who from palsy had lost the use of both his legs, and was drawn on a kind of sledge through the streets.—There was, from time to time, besides, another wretched woman with six little children, and near delivery of a seventh; all these paupers, and many more, were almost daily relieved and fed, until an accident occurred for our deliverance.—To state it in almost a word, my watch was stolen and found upon one of them, who, to save himself from the gallows, informed me *privately* that we were the victims of imposition, and that if I would disguise myself, he would carry me to where I might see the real condition of those on whom pity had been thrown away.

'I was pleased with the scheme, and having secured myself from discovery, he accompanied me at the time appointed to a public breakfast of the fraternity, before they dressed for their rounds.

'On entering the room I could not help thinking that my repentant conductor, as he described himself, had some new fraud in agitation, since I saw nothing that could give me the least expectation of meeting the wretches we had so long supported.—The company were seated round a long table, where neither disease nor old age were to be seen, but on the contrary, above twenty well-dressed, healthy, happy people, regaling themselves with the best fare, and pledging one another in their cups; on the ringing of a bell their president told them to deliver in their accounts, and to assume their different characters for the day—the audit was soon over, and after they had been gone about a quarter of an hour, I saw all of them return, *and every one of my friends amongst the rest.*—They were exactly the same as I had always seen them, and their real characters and descriptions were as follows:—The old man of 103 had not seen 30, he had been a drummer in a regiment, and was just returned from transportation before his time.* — The woman who had lost her eyes, which were now covered again with patches, my conductor had shewn me in the room, where instead of their being obscured by lightning, they flashed lightning, in every glance. — She was a beautiful creature not more than seventeen years of age, and hired for the purpose by the gang. — The paralytic patient, whose sledge stood in the passage, was cutting his capers in the way to it, as indeed he very well might, having been a rope-dancer at one of the smaller theatres, from which he had lately been discharged, on his being discovered picking a pocket behind the scenes. — The pregnant lady was among the last, as her pillow had not been carefully adjusted, and she had to pay the mothers of the six children who were going out with her, as they always attended to receive the ready money for the day.

'My *felonious* friend now made me a signal to be gone, as my disguise, he said, might perhaps be discovered, which would not only be ruinous to him but might be dangerous to myself.'

The question of religion is dismissed with a very few observations, on which we shall make no comments.

In the shape of general remarks, we have very little to add to those which we hazarded at the close of our review of the first part of this work. Its principal merit, we still think, consists in the eloquence with which its discussions are carried on, whenever the topics are of sufficient interest to excite eloquence: but in this particular the present volume has certainly less pretensions than the former; and the author's attempts at wit of the lower and more familiar kind are by no means successful. Taken as a whole, however, this publication is unquestionably calculated to excite interest and attention: though we must conclude with repeating an observation which we have already made, that it must be considered merely as a sketch, or an introduction to the subjects on which it touches, and not as an elaborate production from which a student may expect to inform himself of details or minutiæ.

Art. III. *Ilderim; a* Syrian Tale. In Four Cantos. 8vo. pp. 74. 4s. 6d. sewed. Murray. 1816.

Art. IV. *Phrosyne;* a Grecian Tale. — *Alashtar;* an Arabian Tale. By H. Gally Knight, Esq. 8vo. pp. 112. 5s. 6d. sewed. Murray. 1817.

The poems of Phrosyne and Alashtar 'complete the series of which Ilderim formed a part.' So the author informs us, in his advertisement; and he adds that 'they are meant

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'* The Armatans transport their felons, as we do, to a very distant region.'

to illustrate the scenery and manners of the respective countries in which the scene is laid. The *first* (namely, Phrosyne) is but too well founded in fact. The second is purely imaginary; but authorities exist in nature for whatever is represented.'

We have the less apology to offer for our delay in criticizing Ilderim, because we have been thus enabled to see the plan of the poet entirely executed; and, certainly, we are justified in giving him a considerable share of praise for the observation which he has made, and the record which he has kept, of the peculiarities of a range of country and different classes of nations, which, until these few years, were but partially known to the British public. Since that period, the prose and the poetry of various travellers have imported into England the customs, the manners, and even portions of the language of Greece and its adjoining regions; and we have therefore become better qualified to judge of the degree of force and vividness with which an author conveys our imagination into the scenes of these interesting districts. Such being the case, we are in truth and justice obliged to confess that the reality of Grecian scenery and Grecian life, in the nineteenth century, have never been so clearly and so strongly depicted as by the original and penetrating mind of Lord Byron. There is a something in that noble author's delineations, especially on this glorious ground for poetry, which leaves all competitors far behind him. With him we do indeed wander in the groves of classical antiquity, or climb the very sacred hills and haunts of the Muses; and no cold or laboured effort here brings us to the shrine of Delphi, and to the summit of Parnassus. We will not, however, dilate on a subject of panegyric that is not so properly before us as the merits of a very different class of writers; yet still a class of highly respectable writers. The refined, the elegant, and the more tamely classical, are the characteristics of style belonging to that order of poets whom we designate; in whose compositions we find much to admire, and comparatively little to condemn. If these sons of song never rise to any very extraordinary height, they sail along gracefully through the middle regions of poetry; and, having lately transported themselves and their readers into striking and attractive scenes and situations, they have gained a novel power, and a popularity which never appertained before to

" The mob of gentlemen who write with ease."

At the " very head and front" of the excellence of this numerous species of authors, stands Mr. Gally Knight; and indeed he more often rises above the best of them than sinks below their general tone. We earnestly trust that we cannot fairly incur the imputation of "damning with faint praise," in this avowal of our opinion: we wish sincerely to render every justice to the merits of an accomplished and scholar-like writer: but truth and nature forbid us to award the palm of transcendent genius *any where* but where it is boldly, nervously, and indisputably claimed.

The poem of Ilderim having been some time before the public, the greater number of its destined readers have already, in all probability, performed their agreeable task. We hope that those too, who have yet that pleasure to come, will forgive us if, by a quotation well calculated to shew the best manner of the work, we anticipate a little of the story, and supersede the necessity of a prose analysis; which, except in long, complicated, and important compositions, is perhaps apt to give an undue dignity to trifles, and to methodize that which the poet himself has left in a state of much more irregularity. We are to suppose, in explanation of the subjoined passage, that an attack is made by the famous outlaw Ilderim on the tyrant Abdallagh's residence at Balbec:

'Loos'd from the mass, emerging from the gate,
  Rush'd Ilderim — amid that scatter'd flight
He sought for only one — revenge and hate,
  Yet unappeas'd, were craving for their right.
  "Tyrant! where art thou? tumult, nor the night,
Shall hide, or save — Abdallagh, dost thou live?
  The mountain robber dares thee to the fight.
Fail me not, Fate — nor let my foe receive
From other hands the wound that only these should give."

'No fruitless search — Abdallagh, borne along,
  Had vainly tried to check the course of fear;
But now, discumber'd from th' o'erwhelming throng,
  Back tow'rds the host he spurr'd his fierce career,
  Bereft of hope, but dauntless; on his ear
Fell that defiance, echoed far and wide.
  "Here, at thy beck, behold Abdallagh here!
Mortal, or fiend, to earth or hell allied,
Abdallagh shuns thee not — whate'er befriends thy side!"

'A moment, and they join'd — "I thank thee, Fate!
  Yet, Tyrant! ere my ready steel I bare,
Thou shalt confess the justice of my hate:
  Who drove me, frantic, to my mountain lair?
  Who scath'd this wither'd bosom with despair?
Thou, curst destroyer of my sire and race!"—
  The moon-beam, piercing through the clouded air,
Cast its full radiance on that hidden face —
Abdallagh started back, and speechless, gaz'd a space.

'" The graves are open'd — Spirit of the night,
What power has burst the tomb's relentless chain?
Thy looks are princely Caled's to my sight, —
Son of the Emir — near his father slain —
Hence to thy narrow prison-house again!" —
" Yes — it is Caled — but with life endued —
He cur'd my wounds who bore me from the plain. —
Tyrant! in unavailing blood embrued,
Art thou by Caled's hate unrighteously pursued?"

' Unnerv'd Abdallagh shrunk — he turn'd his steed,
And fled before his foe — but angry shame
And haughty courage, in extremest need,
Fast, fast renew'd that bosom's native flame —
Sudden he wheel'd — and, with a desperate aim,
Met his pursuer — " Fortune is thy slave —
Yet shalt thou find Abdallagh's steel the same
As when it sent thy father to his grave,
And won the conquer'd realm that Caled could not save."

' They clos'd — but Caled darted on his prey
As from on high the pouncing eagle flies;
Abdallagh blindly check'd the weapon's way;
Caled has struck; and, never more to rise,
Stretch'd on a bloody bed th' usurper lies: —
Furious in death he bites the reckless plain,
And with faint menace of his hand defies;
Then sullen parts — whilst on his brow remain
Fierce pride, and fiercer hate, triumphant over pain.

'" Tis done! Ye victims of ambition's rage
Ye are reveng'd, and Caled's part is o'er.
I came not here to seize my heritage,
For only this — if life would charm me more
Thou must arise, fell tyrant, and restore
That tender flow'ret crush'd to earth by thee.
Vain thought! and now that thou art laid in gore,
Where is the friend shall do as much for me?
Oh! for a kindly sword, to set the victor free!"'

We shall not acquaint our readers with any more of the catastrophe than this quotation discovers; and whether the grief of the victorious robber — (the usual *cast* for a hero of modern verse; — yet of course we must not be "*too sure*" that he really *is* a robber;) whether the unhappiness of Ilderim, we say, is removed, we shall purposely leave in a tantalizing obscurity. We will only observe that, in the previous cantos, two very interesting young ladies have been introduced to us; and that it is impossible not to wish well to them, and to all their connections!

Let us now proceed to point out some of the merits and the defects of style or of versification in this poem.

In the first place, we approve Mr. Knight's choice of the stanza of Spenser; because we think that the artificial construction of this measure, when successfully attained, conveys of itself a species of pleasure to the ear of the critical reader; and we are also of opinion that it serves to give force and effect to descriptions and to sentiments which would appear insipid in the simpler vehicle of the heroic couplet. No greater proof can be adduced of the truth of this last observation, than the manifest inferiority of this same writer when, in the succeeding tale of Phrosyne, he attempts the narrative-manner of Dryden, and risques the plain decasyllabic verse with a rhyme at the end of it. The nakedness of the land is sooner discovered in this metre than in any other; while the condensation of thought, and the clear vigour of expression, are no where so well exhibited. We shall bring this matter to the test by several quotations; — at present we return to Ilderim.

We have already awarded to Mr. Knight the prize of elegance, and general correctness of language; and it is indeed a very rational pleasure that we are afforded in an author who neither insults our judgment by monstrous inventions, nor disgusts our taste by barbarous phraseology. We are, it is true, occasionally offended in a less degree by some instances of too great familiarity of expression; for, although we may possibly admit the simplicity of such a line as one which is quoted above,

> 'Where is the friend *shall do as much* for me?'

yet we never can allow

> 'Send for him *here*,' page 56.

or other phrases of a similar description, to pass uncensured in a writer who aims at refinement.

> 'Shouts of a rushing crowd, that tow'rd the portal BLOWS.'

We presume this to be a mis-print: but, if so, it will require some ingenuity to describe the crowd as *rushing* and *flowing* at one and the same moment. What the meaning is in the next page (57.) of the subjoined words, separated as we separate them, we cannot conceive:

> 'This way and that, as battle ebbs and flows,
> The crimson billow rolls — *the darkness round*
> *Disjointed rule* — but each his leader found
> In unrelenting fury, or despair.'

Our stanzaic poet sometimes imagines that he is permitted to use the freedom of dramatic dialogue: but nothing can be more distinct than the poetical licenses of such different styles of composition.

> ' How little *is't* that Azza can impart?
> *Tell him 'twas Ilderim* from whom the message came.'

We are far from wishing to raise such passages of necessary plainness into greater *ornament:* we only desire that they should be free from too colloquial contractions, and from too familiar abruptness.

Still, we cannot dismiss Ilderim without another tribute or two to his merit; for we think that, on the whole, he greatly excels both his companions, and we are sure that he is very superior to one of them. The following description of an Oriental night has great beauty, in our judgment:

> ' That pass o'ercome, they rode on smoother ground
> 'Mid groves of pine, or copse of scented bay;
> The fire-fly, darting through the shades around,
> Spangled the dark; from bush or verdant spray,
> The bulbul sung, and, oft, a silver ray
> Gleam'd o'er their path, and checquer'd half the wood;
> Soft on the leaves the light wind died away;
> Mild was the air, and gentle, Nature's mood;
> A time for lovers fit — ah! more than men of blood.
>
> ' Oh! this is not a Western poet's dream,
> Whose fancy toils, that night may have a charm;
> His land ne'er show'd a subject for his theme.
> Those only climes that suns of splendour warm,
> Secure from icy blight, and storm's alarm;
> Where not a star but sheds peculiar light,
> And dews descend, nor bring the shepherd harm;
> Where nature freshens in the moon-beam's sight,
> These only climes behold the loveliness of night.'

We shall conclude our sketch of this pleasing peep into Syria with one other quotation:

> ' Down Balbec's vale a train of horsemen ride,
> Amongst them one who seems on air to move:
> He darts along, excites his courser's pride,
> And eyes the groves around, the skies above,
> With rapture, such as souls enamour'd prove.
> 'Tis the freed captive, snatch'd from dungeon gloom,
> Light, his enjoyment; liberty, his love;
> At once revers'd the terrors of his doom,
> For him each passing breeze from Eden seems to come.'

This last line sounds like a plagiarism from a beautiful passage in Gray;

> " The common air, the earth, the skies
> To him are opening Paradise."

So much for Ilderim.

When

When we first opened the pages of Mr. Knight's succeeding performance, we were surprised to find that our old Grecian acquaintance, Euphrosy̆ne, had nothing to do with her modern Greek derivative Phrosȳne; and we could not help feeling it to be rather an unworthy compliance with the barbarous accentuation of the Romaïc, thus to falsify the quantity of an antient appellative. This is not the only instance in the work; and we cannot let such corruptions pass without a mark of disapprobation. The story is said to be real: but, in a country abounding with the memorials and associations of classical antiquity in every direction, it would have been easy to have avoided a discordance of this nature; and to have chosen a name in which neither the ear nor the taste of a scholar would have been offended. Not, however, to dwell on a blemish which is swoln to a magnitude beyond its natural consequence by its frequent repetition, we have to complain of much tameness, and prosaic heaviness of style, in this Grecian Tale. Let our readers decide whether the subjoined instances, which are perfectly fair specimens of the general level of the work, have any of the spirit or flow of poetry, properly so called:

'Swift is the silent course of fleeting Time
To all who sport in Pleasure's vernal prime;
Yet swifter still his flight appears to those
Whose bliss a stated moment comes to close:
Suppliant in vain they sue for wish'd delay —
Heedless, the rapid hours pursue their way.'

Few well-educated boys, with any turn for verse, would be incapable of writing as well as this before they came to College. Such thoughts are the mere lingering vibrations of an exhausted echo; and such rhymes are something yet more unsubstantial, if that be possible. While we are speaking of rhymes, we will add that we think it is evident that Mr. Knight is unskilled in all the *hidden* mysteries of song; and that the nicer variations of harmony are equally unstudied and unknown by the muse of his inspiration. Not only does a great monotony of cadence pervade all his couplets, but homoioteleutic rhymes constantly disfigure them; and words of a disagreeably jangling sound are placed too close to each other in adjoining verses. Mr. Knight has a good *general* ear for the rhythm of an English heroic line: but it is not sufficiently delicate by nature, nor guided enough by the examples of his tuneful predecessors, (which in this case must often serve instead of the rules of art,) to avoid many discords, or to attain any thing like melodious perfection. Perhaps the author will now learn for the first time that such rhymes as *glade* and *blade*, *train* and *again*, recurring frequently in a short poem, are decided defects. The constant change of the vowel, which gives the character to the sound, will always be deemed requisite by a correct and really musical writer; and he will not be satisfied with the bare difference between the last letter or letters of a word and those of its correspondent. *Fell* and *knell*, *impell'd* and *rebell'd*, would obviously be excluded from the pages of such a writer. Moreover, any unpleasing collision, that can anticipate the idea of a rhyme, or divert the attention from the proper close for an instant, is in bad taste.

> 'How swift Phrosȳne *thought* the moments gone,
> That *brought* the dreaded day of parting on.'

If this objection, at least as here instanced, may be considered (by any persons qualified to judge) as of too hypercritical a severity, the following four lines will furnish a sufficient example of almost all the faults which we have been specifying:

> 'Half robb'd of life they saw the *fated maid*
> Her sinking *head* on Helen's bosom *laid;*
> Clos'd were her eyes, and from their native *bed*
> The withered roses seem'd for ever *fled.*'

Here, although the vowel *is* changed, the whole quatrain is more than '*half robbed*' of harmony by the still remaining similarity of the final sounds; that similarity being rendered additionally offensive by the intermixture of several kindred discords.

Various other objections may be urged against Mr. Knight's *heroics:* but his *stanzaics* succeed indisputably better. Often, indeed, with the poet as with the painter, a simple style betrays that want of original power in both which the more complicated efforts of their art had concealed. In Ilderim, or in Alashtar, we should rarely meet with such specimens of feebleness as the subjoined:

> —— 'Would rather view her breathless at my feet,
> *Than see her go* disgrace and crime to meet.'

> 'The maid had fled, and gain'd *the inner room,*
> Dismay'd with fear, uncertain of the doom.'

We could multiply such nerveless and pointless distichs to a great extent: but we shall present the reader with one better extract from this unsuccessful Grecian Tale, and pass on to Alashtar. Our proposed selection is indeed of a more common and insignificant character than on first perusing it we had imagined: but still it is more classical, more like an imitation of the manner of the antient Greek minor poems, than we can elsewhere discover:

> ' The sun was bright — the season in its pride —
> Daphne * was red on every streamlet's side;
> All Nature smil'd — the air itself was gay,
> And warbling birds sung homage to the day:
> Pensive Phrosyne sat — and " Oh, thou sun!
> Haste thee," she cry'd, " thy onward course to run.
> Cease, tedious Summer! cease thy loath'd delay —
> Swift, with thy gaudy pageants, haste away!
> These flow'ry wreaths but on my soul impress
> How distant still from me is happiness!
> Hence, glitt'ring train! — and oh! thou kinder pow'r,
> Snow-girted Winter! bring thy darksome hour:
> More grateful far thy roughest blast shall sound
> Than this soft air that gently steals around;
> Thy leafless groves a fairer sight appear
> Than the green canopy that shades me here;
> Brighter thy gloomy skies than yonder glow
> That decks, with living gold, the vale below!
> Haste, Winter! haste — Phrosyne longs to see
> Thy snows — for love's sweet triumph comes with thee!"

The last line, which ought to have breathed the soul of melody, is an absolute lesson of hissing dissonance. Ali Pacha, the Turkish governor, whose unruly passions gave rise to the tale which we have been criticizing, has lately appeared before the English public in numerous shapes of interest or of horror; as he has happened to strike the imagination rather than to meet the knowlege of our poetical countrymen. This extraordinary man, almost equally the dread of his nominal sovereigns at Constantinople and of his real slaves in Greece, presents a spectacle which future historians must record with minute accuracy, if they wish to secure the belief of their readers. As he already fills no inconsiderable space in the records of a most interesting country, and a country more likely every day to fix the attention of polished nations, it is highly desirable that every transient writer who touches on so strange a name, so *unique* a mixture of sagacity and savageness, should strictly adhere to the letter of his instructions on the subject; and that he should wholly abstain from embellishing an original, which for extravagance of contrary extremes, and for curious exhibitions of the licentiousness of human power and the perversity of human intellect, must leave far behind them even the most finished portraits of imagination.

' * Daphne is the Romaic name for the Oleander, which fringes the rivers and streams of Greece.'

" *Tanto majores humana negotia ludi!*"

We are far from insinuating that Mr. Knight has varied from the fact in this single record of Ali's lust and cruelty: but we wish that the dates, and other necessary confirmations of the events stated, had been appended to his poem.

Alashtar is a composition which furnishes another proof of Mr. Knight's honourable mastery of the difficult stanza of Spenser. He really writes it with great facility and firmness. We shall here, too, abstain from disenchanting the poem by an analysis of its principal features; and we shall be contented with extracting one or two of some happy common-places, in which the author has judiciously indulged:

' Oh! thou deceiver, Life, how brightly gay
Thy future scenes on youthful fancies rise,
Till cold experience draws the veil away,
And, drest in all its dread realities,
Dark in our sight the blighted prospect lies:
So from afar the faithless deserts shew
Ideal lakes to cheat the pilgrim's eyes;
Thirsting he toils across the plains that glow,
And finds a waste of sand, where waters seem'd to flow.'

The following is perhaps not quite so well, but it is pleasing:

' How sweet is woman's love, is woman's care!
When struck and shatter'd in the stormy hour
We droop forlorn; and man, with stoic air,
Neglects, or roughly aids; then, rob'd in power,
Then Nature's angel seeks the mourner's bower.
How blest her smile that gives the soul repose!
How blest her voice, that, like the genial shower
Pour'd on the desert, gladdens as it flows,
And cheers the sinking heart, and conquers half our woes!'

The conclusion reminds us of the well known charade,

" My first doth affliction denote," &c.

We shall now quote a stanza in which the poet betrays some weak conformity to the vicious language of his contemporaries;

' How fair is night to *Arab rover's* eyes!
What though alone the dreary waste he dare,
Companion'd still he feels, so gemm'd the skies
With myriad habitants, that, sparkling there,
Discomfit darkness, making all the air
One living blaze: nor cloud nor vapour chill
Obscures the azure vault; but harmless flare
The meteor lights that seem to rove at will—
Oh! fair is eastern night; so cool, so bright, so still.'

Arab rover ; myriad habitants ; eastern night ; are specimens, although far from gross, of that mutilated sort of English which Mr. Scott and Lord Byron have taught to the minstrels of the moment. — We conclude with an extract descriptive (and, we need not add, panegyrical,) of the Arabian character. The beginning somewhat resembles Burns's noble song,

" Their groves of green myrtle let foreign lands reckon."

' As bounteously the dews of bliss descend *
  On the lone desert, as on Tempé's vale :
True joys are of the soul — on mind depend,
  Nor influence own of scene, or veering gale.
  The sons of Greece tell sorrow's bitter tale
Beside the rill, beneath the spreading tree ;
  In citron groves the Grecian maids bewail ;
While speeds o'er sands the Arab blest and free,
And loves his native home — the home of liberty.

' Free as his winds he roves — and if his mind,
  Rude as the scene in which his breath he draws,
Owns no subjection, no respect of kind,
  And bids defiance proud to social laws,
  His sterner virtues still extort applause —
Mankind his common foe, the foe of all
  He combats, sever'd from the social cause ;
But who so swift to hear the stranger's call ?
Who for the suppliant guest to conquer or to fall ?

' Fantastic honour, still opinion's child,
  Of differing temper in each differing land,
Courage, that loves to quarry in the wild,
  Take in the desert's tent a watchful stand.
  Generous as brave, nor only free of hand,
But prodigal of life, the weak to aid,
  The noble savage leads his wand'ring band ;
While, o'er his soul, the sweet poetic maid
Spreads her enchanting spell, and fondly is obey'd.'

We have devoted a large space to the comparatively brief performances of Mr. Knight, because they everywhere bear marks of a cultivated and classical taste ; and, if not stamped

" With ALL the Godhead glowing in the mind," (*Gifford*,)

they are yet so clearly at the head of the second rank of genius, that they have deserved the care and the correction which, from the sincerest wish to do a real service to their author, as well as to their readers, we have endeavoured to bestow on this publication.

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* Would not this line be made more musical by a mere transposition ?

' The dews of bliss as bounteously descend.'

Art. V. *Supplement to the Ornithological Dictionary,* or Synopsis of British Birds. By George Montagu, Esq. F.L.S. and M.W.S. 8vo. Bagster, Arch, &c.

It may be in the recollection of our ornithological readers that, some years ago [*], we gave a short account of the first part, or rather of the original portion, of the present work. From some accidental circumstances, the Supplement has only now been submitted to our cognizance, though it has been published a considerable time. We regret this delay, both because the volume contains a great diversity of authentic and instructive information, and because its much respected author can no longer participate in those well-earned commendations which are due to his zeal, diligence, and perseverance, or reply to those critical remarks which a paramount sense of duty still extorts from our reluctant pen. These remarks, however, do not affect the accuracy of his statements, which can seldom be questioned, but relate merely to the manner in which he has communicated them. When we mention, therefore, that his style is somewhat heavy and dragging, and often deficient in harmony and correctness, we sufficiently intimate the general amount of the ungrateful part of our verdict: but the candid public will not, we are confident, accuse us of 'sipping no other drink but gall,' of having our 'hands continually imbued in blood,' or of 'stabbing in the dark' [†], although we should enter our protest against the *legitimacy* of such modes of expression as the following: 'it was thought *most* advantageous to the public to give it in its present state, *than* to wait;' — 'each *stab* and *are*;' — 'innumerate;' — 'the curious conformation rather *puzzle* than *confirm*;' — '*ossious*;' — '*delatable*;' — 'feathers which *characterizes*;' — '*rising* his body;' — '*curviture*;' — 'the coverts of the ears *is*;' — 'a projecting *callous*;' — 'its rarity and extreme locality *has* been;' — 'In few countries *do* the value of geese appear;' — 'where there *was* scarcely any membranous divisions;' — 'In severe winters, moor-game comes lower down and *flock* together;' — 'the size and weight *is*;' — 'not a lesser Guillemot, *or* a Black-billed Auk, *are* to be seen;' — 'there *appears* intermediate local situations;' —

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[*] See Monthly Review, N. S. vol. xl. p. 137.

[†] See the concluding paragraph of the Introduction.

'*mucus* membrane;' — 'It should seem the Shag is subject to vary in the form of *their* occasional crest;' — 'The red-backed Shrike is said to be common in Egypt, and *are* caught;' — 'must be very different in Picardy *than* in Sussex;' — 'neither Brisson nor Buffon *appear* to have;' — 'the artifices these little creatures made *was* highly amusing;' — 'the mottled appearance of old and new feathers *are*;' — 'Domestication and confinement *is* undoubtedly the cause;' — '*miscomprehended*;' — 'the reasons assigned *is*;' — 'what *was* its infantine colours;' — 'the irides of the Scops *is* of a deeper yellow;' — 'the same *indicative* of immaturity,' — &c. The disfigured state of some Latin and French terms we would charitably ascribe to the unceremonious deportment of a provincial press: but the same apology can scarcely be offered for the cumbersome structure, non-completion, dislocation, or the utter confusion of the meaning of a sentence. Let a single instance of each of these defects suffice.

> 'It is not our intention, in this place, to enter into a discussion upon the organs of digestion in quadrupedes, but as we find there are some animals who are equally graminivorous with those who have the powers of ruminating, and whose stomach is extremely different; it requires to be ascertained, whether the stomach alone, in ruminant animals, affords the means of extracting a superior portion of nourishment; or whether by a second mastication, the food is not better prepared by its extreme comminution, to yield more expeditiously its *nutrimentous* contents than can be effected in the stomach of a horse, who has not the power of grinding his food a second time, the mastication of which is imperfectly performed, and coarsely submitted to the organs of digestion.' — 'If we consider that these birds not only afford us a wholesome but a delicate food; their smaller feathers and down contribute so largely to our nightly repose; their quills, so common in use for transmitting our thoughts to the present and future ages, we may truly estimate their intrinsic value, as little inferior to the sheep; for the *wool* of the goose is equally valuable, and the flesh as eagerly sought after.' — 'In the month of December, 1805, a small flock of these birds were observed busy in extracting the seeds from the alder trees, in the south of Devon, *several of which were shot.*' — 'With all these reflections, founded on the known laws of nature, evinced by daily experience, we can have no more doubt of the *identity of these two Shrikes as distinct species*, than we have that they are different from the *Cinereous Shrike*,' &c.

Having thus discharged the only unpleasant part of our office, we are prepared to intimate, without distraction, the nature and extent of some of those additions with which this Supplement is enriched. We may premise, in general, that the list of synonyms has been considerably augmented, especially by the insertion of numbers of the provincial appellations; that many of the original articles are considerably enlarged, or reformed; that not a few species are noticed for the first time; that others have been satisfactorily proved to be mere varieties, resulting from sex or age; that the quantity of matter contained in this single volume somewhat exceeds that which was comprized in the two former; and that almost every page might justly attract our consideration and solicit our report. We must be contented, however, to point out a few of the more prominent articles, and even to pass unnoticed many original and ingenious observations.

Under *Auk-black-billed*, and *Auk-razor-billed*, various particulars are stated, corroborative of the author's former opinion that these are distinct species. Two or three instances of the *Little Bittern* (*Ardea minuta*) having been shot on our coasts are recorded, on the testimony of Mr. Comyns and the Reverend Mr. Fleming. We have also to remark that the distinctions between the *Mountain*, *Tawny*, and *Snow Buntings*, are more fully developed than in the preceding part of the work. The *Great Bustard* (*Otis tarda*) suggests the ensuing notices:

> 'One of this species shot in Devonshire in the year 1804, and taken to Plymouth market, was bought by a publican for a shilling; an evident proof that refined luxury had not found its way so far westward from the metropolis, since a poulterer in London would have demanded two or three guineas for it. But so rare a wanderer was not stamped with its real value, where it was unknown, and the landlord perhaps considering it fit for a secondary table, fairly speculated upon the cost of a dish that perhaps did not exceed one half-penny in the pound, and had it dressed for the dinner of some riders. These itinerant gentlemen being as ignorant as the natives of the prize set before them, and perceiving, upon dissection, the difference in the colour of the pectoral muscle from the other part of the breast (a circumstance not unusual, especially in the Grous kind) voted it improper food, and ordered it from table.
>
> 'Some neighbouring gentlemen happening to sup at the inn the evening after, and hearing of the circumstance, desired they might be introduced to this princely bird, and partook of it cold, at this repast.
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> 'The above story was related to us* by a gentleman of property and strict veracity, residing in the county.
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> 'Could this bird have been likened to any known species of game, for which there is so much demand, it might have proved a

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* Mr. Montagu, like *Kings* and *Reviewers*, always speaks in the plural number.

treasure to the captor; for the Lesser Bustard was offered for a very reduced price in the same market, not many years since, when some person pronounced it a heath-fowl, (a bird inhabiting some parts of Devon,) and the price instantly rose to five shillings, which a friend who afterwards sent it to us, did not hesitate to give.

'The Great Bustard has decreased so rapidly within these twenty years, that in a few years more not a vestige of them will remain in these realms. The shepherds with whom we have conversed lately, declare they have not seen one in their most favourite haunts, upon the extensive downs of Wiltshire, for the last two or three years, where we have often contemplated this noble bird with so much pleasure, and regarded them as an object well worth every attempt to cultivate in their native plains; for all the artful means tried to keep and domesticate them, so as to procure increase, have proved abortive. The length of their days is so reduced in that state, that few have exceeded two or three years, and have never shewn any inclination to breed.'

A specimen of the *Little Bustard*, shot near Torrington, and rescued by Mr. Prideaux 'from the all-devouring jaw of the epicure,' enabled the author not only to describe this rare species with more satisfactory minuteness than heretofore, but to offer some ingenious remarks on the structure of the stomach of graminivorous birds. His suggestions on this subject, however, though well deserving the attention of the physiological student, are too ample for our insertion.

Having clearly established that the *Crested Corvorant* is only a variety of the common species, the author proceeds thus:

'The possession of this bird has given us much of its history we were previously unacquainted with. It is extremely docile, and of a grateful disposition, without the smallest tincture of a savage or vindictive spirit, and by no means possessing the bad qualities a celebrated writer would induce us to believe, by making it personify Satan.

'The bird in question was surprised by a Newfoundland dog, belonging to a fisherman, under the banks of a rivulet that ran into the British Channel; it was taken home, and not being in the accustomed plumage, was reported to be a curious and unknown species. As soon as Mr. Austice heard of it, he went to see the bird, and found that in the small space of time it had been made captive (about a week), it was perfectly familiarized, and making one in the family circle round the fire, suffering the caresses of the children, who were very unwilling to part with it. That mode, however, by which all earthly matters are obtained, and by which kingdoms are lost and gained, succeeded, and it was conveyed to us by the coach, being placed in a basket. As soon as it arrived and was liberated, it followed the servant who released it, and was offered every sort of food at hand, all of which was equally refused; not even raw flesh was acceptable, and no fish could then be procured to satisfy its hunger, (having been twenty-four hours on its journey,) in consequence we cramed* it with flesh, which was taken very reluctantly; but even with this rough handling, its formidable bill was not made use of offensively. After feeding, it was placed on a stool, in an adjoining room to the library, where it sat perfectly contented, and adjusted its disconcerted plumage. Observing it so perfectly reconciled to its new abode, and having retired to the library, leaving both doors open, with intention of returning, we were astonished, in a few minutes, to see the stranger walk boldly into the room, while in conversation with a friend, and coming towards us with the greatest confidence and familiarity, joined us at the fire-side, where it re-assumed the task of pluming and dressing its feathers. From hence we removed this bird to an aquatic menagerie, to which it was carried without offering the least offensive resistence, but the sight of water made it restless, and when liberated, it instantly plunged in and dived incessantly for a considerable time, in hopes of prey; and after searching every part of the pond, without obtaining a single fish, it appeared to be convinced there were none, and never made any other attempt for three days, during the whole of which time, it was crammed with flesh, not being able to procure any fish.'—'It lives in perfect harmony with a whistling swan, a bernacle goose, various sorts of ducks, and other occasional birds, but if it perceives a gull with a piece of fish, it instantly gives chace: if, however, the gull has time to swallow it, no resentment is offered, the sight of it created the desire of possession, and that desire ceases with its disappearance.

'If it gets out it never attempts to ramble, but walking direct to the house, enters the first open door without deference to any one, regardless even of a dog, and in fact is troublesomely tame.'

The circumstance of two carrion-crows conveying the refuse of a fisherman's net from the edge of the flowing tide, to just above high-water-mark, and, after having satisfied their appetite, depositing the remainder of their prey under large stones, is adduced as an example of provident reflection in birds, since the secreting of their superfluous store could not be prompted by the instinctive calls of hunger. The author has so carefully noted the points of difference between the male and female of the *Imber-diver*, (*Colymbus immer*,) that they are not likely, in future, to be described as separate species. It is remarked that the *Rock-pigeon* has been found to be a great devourer of *helix virgata*, with which it also regales its young. The shell 'not only acts as a gentle stimulus to the delicate stomach of the infant race, but when ground to a powder becomes an absorbent, and corrects the acrimonious quality of their other food.'—Under *Duck-Scaup*,

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* This orthography occurs, we believe, more than once. *Rev.*

Mr. Montagu takes occasion to rectify an error into which he, in common with some other ornithologists, had fallen with regard to the alleged similarity of plumage in the male and the female; whereas the difference is, in fact, so decidedly marked that they had been considered as distinct species. A female of this bird, which fell under the author's particular observation, died, in consequence of a diseased state of its system; and a mucor, or blue mould, was found, on dissection, vegetating in the cavity of the membrane that separates the lungs from the other viscera. Having noticed that the *Golden Eagle* is of more rare occurrence in this country than it is commonly supposed to be, owing to the circumstance of almost every large eagle being mistaken for it, Mr. Montagu thus lifts up his honest and indignant voice against the dispersion of the late Leverian Museum:

> 'It has not been our good fortune to meet with one out of the many reputed Golden species that have been shot in England; nor have we ever seen this bird in any British collection, except in that which was once as much an honour to the country, as its recent dispersion is a disgrace. When we reflect on the various detections of peculation to a vast amount by public characters; when public bodies can, by application to Parliament, procure loans to any amount, and private individuals be rewarded from the public fund, how extraordinary does it appear that in neither of the Houses of Parliament an advocate or a champion should be found ready to stand forth and rescue science in so enlightened a country. It will scarcely be credited in after ages, when our children's children shall be told of the polish and refinement of the present day, that the trifling sum of thirty, or perhaps twenty thousand pounds, would have added that vast assemblage of nature and art to the British Museum; yet it was suffered to be dispersed.
>
> 'Had the *Leverian Museum* been connected with that of [the] *British*, these collectively would have formed a most magnificent national collection that might have been envied by surrounding potentates, but unrivalled even by that of the *Great Nation*, (to which the fate of war has given the means of plundering from the public and private museums of nearly the whole of Europe,) but alas! that unfortunate collection has been dissolved, "and like the baseless fabrick of a vision, has not left a wreck behind."
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> 'The scientific reader will pardon this digression, and sympathise with us on the fate of that once entertaining and highly instructive assemblage, both natural and artificial, collected from every part of the globe. At its dissolution the *Austrian cabinet* was enriched by means of a special scientific messenger expressly sent by its august sovereign, and some of the choicest and most valuable articles were probably at the capture of *Vienna* transferred to the *Parisian Museum*.'

It certainly cannot be denied that countries, of which the financial resources are very inferior to our own, have made the most liberal exertions for the promotion and diffusion of natural science: but we may now be permitted to indulge the reasonable hope that a government, which can allot thirty-five thousand pounds for the mutilated productions of antient art, will not in future withhold its substantial patronage from the existing or modern collectors of the rare productions of nature.

Many excellent critical remarks, for which we cannot make room, will be found in this volume, relative to the nomenclature and characters of the *Falcons*, the manners and physiological structure of the *Gannet*, the discriminative marks of the *Guillemots*, *Gulls*, *Plovers*, &c. and the conformation of the *trachea* in several of the species. Some instructive pages are likewise devoted to the *Common Pheasant*, and especially to the proper management of that bird when labouring under the wasteful distemper called the *gapes*; which seems to originate in the presence of a peculiar sort of *fasciola* in the throat. As the great diversity in the plumage of the *Ruff*, and the short duration of the long feathers on the neck of the male, have given rise to much confusion in the synonymy of this species, Mr. Montagu lays down some criteria of a less fallible nature; such as the length of the bird, the shape of the bill, &c.

'The trade of catching Ruffs is confined to a very few persons, which at present scarcely repays their trouble, and expence of nets. These people live in obscure places on the verge of the fens, and are found out with difficulty, for few, if any birds, are ever bought but by those who make a trade of fatting them for the table; and they sedulously conceal the abode of the fowlers; so much, that by no art could we obtain from any of them where they resided; and, in order to deceive us, after evading our intreaties, gave us instructions that led us quite a contrary direction. The reason of all this was obvious, for after much labour and search, in the most obscure places, (for neither the innkeepers nor other inhabitants of the towns could give any information, and many did not know such a bird was peculiar to their fens,) we found out a very civil and intelligent fowler, who resided close to Spalding, at Fen-gate, by name William Burton, (we feel a pleasure in recording his name, not only from his obliging nature, but for the use of others in similar pursuits,) and strange to say, that although this man had constantly sold Ruffs to Mr. Towns, a noted feeder, hereafter more particularly noticed, as also to another feeder at Cowbit, by the name of Weeks, neither of those persons could be induced to inform us even of the name of this fowler. The reason, however, was evident, and justly remarked by Burton, for he obtained no more than ten shillings per dozen, whereas Weeks demanded thirty shillings for the like number he had the same day bought of Burton. The season was far advanced, and we were obliged to buy some at that price of Weeks, for Burton could not then catch us as many as were required.

'At this time we were shewn into a room, where there were about seven dozen males and a dozen females, and of the former there were not two alike. This intrusion to choose our birds, drove them from their stands, and compelling some to trespass upon the premises of others, produced many battles.

'By this feeder we learned, that two guineas a dozen was now the price for fattened Ruffs; and he never remembered the price under thirty shillings, when fit for table.

'Mr. Towns, the noted feeder at Spalding, assured us his family had been a hundred years in the trade; boasted that they had served George II., and many noble families in the kingdom. He undertook at the desire of the late Marquis of Townsend, (when that nobleman was Lord Lieutenant of Ireland,) to take some Ruffs to that country, and actually set off, with twenty-seven dozen from Lincolnshire, left seven dozen at the Duke of Devonshire's, at Chatsworth, continued his route across the kingdom to Holyhead, and delivered seventeen dozen alive in Dublin, having lost only three dozen in so long a journey, confined and greatly crowded as they were in baskets, which were carried upon two horses.

'Nothing can more strongly evince the hardy constitution of these birds than the performance of such a journey so soon after capture, and necessarily fed with a food wholly new to them; and yet a certain degree of care and attention is requisite to preserve, and more especially to fatten them; for out of the seventeen dozen delivered at the castle of Dublin, not more than two dozen were served up to table, doubtless entirely owing to a want of knowledge, or attention of the feeder, under whose care they had been placed.

'Few Ruffs, comparatively speaking, are now taken in the spring, as the old birds frequently pine, and will not readily fatten. The principal time is in September, when the young birds are fled; these are infinitely more delicate for the table, more readily submit to confinement, and are less inclined to fight. If this plan was generally enforced by the proprietors of fen-land, or made a bye-law amongst themselves, the breed would not be so reduced; but there are still some fowlers who make two seasons, and thus by catching the old birds in the spring, especially the females, verify the fable of the goose and the golden eggs; the destruction of every female in the breeding season is the probable loss of four young.'

The *Siskin,* (*Fringilla spinus,*) which was inadvertently omitted in the Dictionary, is now introduced, and duly commemorated. The author's zeal in prosecuting the natural history of the Tree-Sparrow, (*Fringilla montana,*) by his personal

sonal

sonal observation, is illustrated with much *naïveté* in his recital of the means to which he had recourse for the accomplishment of his object: and the result furnishes a distinct and satisfactory parallel between that species and the common house-sparrow.—We pass to the statement of two singular physiological facts:

"We must not omit, in this place, to remark a circumstance that clearly shews what nature will perform, in order to restore her works that have been deranged by accident. A wounded Swan was sent to us by the same kind friend from whom the other living specimen was received; but this unfortunate creature had a most complicated fracture in the bone of the wing near the body. It lived for about four months, fed heartily till within a short time of its death, and at that period the wound in the wing certainly did not affect its health; but it never got up in flesh, and the direct occasion of its decease appeared to be a flux. Curious to know what nature had done with the fractured bone, the wound was examined, and we found a large fragment of the *os humeri,* about an inch in length, still projecting through the skin, but which was surrounded by a callous, like a tooth in its socket, that protected the flesh from its sharp and ragged edges. When this was removed, we found, that about an inch of the remaining stump of the *os humeri* attached to the *ulna* and *radius* of the fore-wing, had deflected, and the joint become nearly motionless; but what surprized us most, was the commencement of a new joint forming at the fractured part. The joint had greatly enlarged, and had shot out strong cartilages, to unite with the fractured end of the interior part of the *os humeri,* the point of which was also enlarged and closed. An union was thus formed at the lower part, and the commencement of a socket in one to receive the head of the other was evident, and a motion was obtained upon these points of contact, and no doubt a rude joint properly inosculated would have been formed, so soon as the large splinter had been removed, and which in a little time would have been naturally effected, for it had risen considerably by the pressure of the enlarged joint. Upon a further dissection of the body, a bullet, the size of a pea, (the same probably which had fractured the wing,) was found to have entered the flesh on the same side of the body, and lodged between the ribs. Within the body, in the direction of the bullet, a large unnatural substance of the size and figure of a hen's egg, and of the colour of liver, was observed between the liver and the gizzard. This was doubtless formed by the extravasated blood caused by the contusion, and had not been taken up by the absorbent vessels. This oval body was enveloped in a membrane, and was attached to both the liver and the gizzard, by an extension of its surrounding membrane, and by that means held in one place. It was tender, fragile, and more dry in its consistence than liver, though similar in colour when first divided by the knife, but by its rapid absorption of oxygen, on exposing the interior part to the air, it became in a few minutes of a bright red; a circumstance that proves its sanguineous property, as blood is known to powerfully attract oxygen, and by its chemical union the change of colour to a bright red is effected. It is an extraordinary circumstance, that so large a portion of coagulated blood should have preserved its living principle without vessels, so generally necessary for the support of vitality; but as it had retained the vital spark for four months, there can be no reason for supposing it would have vanished, but with the life of the animal. After this body had been exposed some days to the air, it became putrid, like all other animal matter divested of its vital principle. Hence we may infer, that blood, or the circulating fluid of an animal, retains in itself a large portion of that which is its office to convey to the system in support of life; and that under certain circumstances, it is perhaps the only animal matter capable of retaining vitality without organization, or, in other words, that is not corruptible under similar circumstances.'

The different species of British *Terns*, including the *Roseate*, with the history of its recent discovery by the late Dr. M'Dougall of Glasgow, are reviewed at considerable length, and with careful discrimination; and even the *Woodcock* gives rise to some new and interesting observations. Of the partial residence of this last species in Great Britain, throughout the whole year, fresh proofs have been obtained; and, from the collation of many specimens, it has been demonstrated that the female is generally the largest, and usually exhibits more of the ferruginous and less of the cinereous hue than the male. The first feather in the wing of the male is not always white on the outer web; and that part in the female is barred like the other quill-feathers. Accidental varieties (or, as the author terms them, *lusus* woodcocks) have been frequently killed that were of a pale-brown, or cream-colour, and rarely white. On the 5th of April, 1805, a brood of four was hatched in a wood, at Shireoaks, near Worksop, in Nottinghamshire; and the old bird had been frequently seen on the nest, which was composed of moss, bents, and dry leaves. Woodcocks naturally devour an enormous quantity of worms: but raw flesh, and even bread and milk, have been gradually substituted for the latter with success; and it is hence conjectured that many birds of congenial habits might in confinement be induced to change their diet by degrees.

Of the *Olivaceous Gallinule*, 'which was fortunately rescued from the spit, and consequently from oblivion, by the hand of science,' we have an account in the present volume as a nondescript water-hen, discovered by Mr. Foljambe, in May, 1812. It is presumed, however, that sportsmen may have mistaken it for the water-rail; and, if so, it may perhaps be found to breed in the fens of the eastern parts of our island.

Strix Nyctea, or the *Snowy Owl*, is also admitted into the British Fauna, on the *tangible* authority of Mr. Bullock.

The plates exhibit representations of the female Cirl-Bunting; the Pigmy Curlew, in its winter plumage; the Ferruginous Duck; the Ash-coloured Falcon; the Little Gallinule; the Eared Grebe; the Little Gull, in its immature state; the Freckled Heron; the Little White Heron; the Austrian Pratincole; the Green Sand-piper, in its infantine plumage; the Little Sand-piper, old and young; the Long-legged Sand-piper; the Brown, Jadreka, Red-breasted, and Spotted Snipes; the Gull-billed, Roseate, and Sandwich Terns; the Solitary Thrush; and Tracheæ of *Anas Nyroca*, *Glacialis*, &c.

In conclusion, we have only to intimate our wish that some person, duly qualified for the task, would undertake to mould the Dictionary and Supplement into a consecutive whole; supplying such occasional deficiencies as extensive reading and observation may still detect, and imparting more harmony and purity to the style.

Art. VI. *Manuel;* a Tragedy, in Five Acts; as performed at the Theatre Royal, Drury Lane. By the Author of Bertram. 8vo. pp. 84. 4s. 6d. Murray. 1817.

In the advertisement to this second drama, the author of Bertram makes a complaint of a very unusual nature against the critics. They did not, it seems, find sufficient fault with his first effort! It is incumbent on them, certainly, to remedy this defect on so fair an opportunity as the present; and, although we should have imagined that, in our examination of the claims of Bertram to the popularity which it was then partially enjoying*, we *did* say enough against that anomalous production, yet we shall now endeavour to supply any possible deficiency of censure on the former occasion. We have, indeed, already denounced the bombastic taste and imperfect morality of this writer: but, as he seems to exclaim, "Lay on, Macduff!" we will take him at his word, and proceed accordingly.

Not a syllable is said by the dramatist on the subject of bombast; and we may infer, therefore, that he tacitly acquiesces in the justice of our strictures on that point. He confesses, both by this silence and by the less ambiguous proof of the general tone and character of the tragedy which is now before us, that *Bombastes Furioso* is his true and appropriate designation. Taking this truth for granted, on all hands, we shall advance to the flimsy defence which the dramatist has set up, to shelter himself from the offensive imputation of a low code of morals in his compositions. Here he manifestly adopts that excellent, old, established practice of paying no attention to the precise charge against him; which is that of clothing a ruffian with the attributes of a hero,—the common scandal of many of our modern poems;—and he deprecates, meanwhile, the supposed severity and injustice of an accusation levelled at his muse for the exposure of adultery! It is not the *exposure*, however, it is the *decoration* of guilt of which we complain; nor is that a fastidious delicacy, as the author would describe it, but a virtuous indignation, which cannot bear to see the gallows deprived of one of its most worthy candidates, namely, the heroic Bertram;—who, after five acts of majestic misanthropy, commits a triumphant suicide, and closes the scene with a proud effusion of false sublimity and perverted courage. In vain would the dramatist plead the examples of older and *Un-Germanized* authors. *Their* villains are not clothed with that revolting mixture of sentiment and atrocity; they are not at once vagabond murderers and the resistless objects of some illustrious wife's affections:—but the fact is too plain to need farther illustration. It is matter of historical record that, within the last half century, this dangerous and dazzling mode of representing vice under a brilliant veil of virtue has been imported into the British dominions. It is matter, we say, of historical record, and of national shame. We could shew, with facility, how the heroine of the first drama of this author was liable to the same species of strong objection, were not the hero enough to condemn any work, however marked by genius: but of this high gift of Heaven we saw *no* pure or lofty traces in Bertram; and, although we are sincerely happy not to have the same censures on the score of imperfect morals to apply to Manuel, yet in Manuel also we have a plentiful harvest of weeds, an indigested mass of every species of bad composition. Here indeed the villain, when discovered to be a villain, is odious throughout; and he would excite detestation, as he ought, unmixed with any less appropriate feeling, were it not for the most facetious, merry, and diverting incident which we recollect in any tragedy since the days of Chrononhotonthologos and Tom Thumb.

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* See M. R. Vol. lxxx. p. 179.

It *is* actually to be read in the play of Manuel, and (still more trying to the faith of our posterity!) it has actually been *proved* to be there, by representation on the stage, that a murderer by proxy gives that proxy a dagger, with the name (not of the maker, but) of De Zelos,—with his own name,—marked on it!!!—Parson Adams forgetting his sermons is nothing to this; no, nor his prototype, who walked unconsciously into the enemy's camp. The play should have been called "The Absent Man;" it should have been a comedy; and we have no doubt that it would have been as well received, and by as judicious an audience as that which tolerated the farrago of improbability and bombast intitled Manuel. Of the former of these qualities, the incident which we have mentioned is a sufficient example; of the latter, we could furnish the reader with specimens from almost every scene: but we shall be contented with a few of the choicest flowers of rhetoric, and then endeavour to find some passage which may enable us to leave the dramatist in better humour with himself than reflection on the foregoing faults can make him.

Let us first give a soliloquy of young Torrismond, the virtuous avenger of his guilty father, De Zelos. Manuel's son has just been missed.

' Act II. Scene 1.

' *The Gardens of Manuel's Castle—a clouded Moon—a part of the Castle seen on one side of the Garden. Torrismond enters much agitated, after an unsuccessful search.*

' *Tor.* Hopeless and desperate—no trace, no sound!—
The forest hath no voice—the giant trees
Stand in mute loneliness—and, when the wind
Sweeps their dark branches, 'tis like mockery
Of the long loud cries that vainly pierced their darkness.
The storm hath ceased—a deep unnatural stillness
Sits brooding on the night, like a stern soul
Jealous of its foul secret—
Break (in thy troubled beauty) forth, O Moon!
And shed thy cold light on my throbbing brow.
Thy wan and sunken gleam, that with the clouds
Holds dubious conflict, to my fancy pictures
Hope striving with Despair!—

The various defects of diction and of versification in this short passage are manifold indeed. We shall mark some of them, and the observant reader will easily detect the remainder.

'*Hopeless* and *desperate!*'—*Desperate* is here used in the identical sense of *hopeless;* and, after such tautology, that taste must indeed be exquisite which could recall the reader to itself, by closing the speech with the hackneyed image of '*Hope* striving with *Despair.*' The simile is spoiled; in its original and unadulterated state, it is found in a play written by Home:

" Hope and fear alternate sway'd his breast
Like light and shade upon a field of corn
Chasing each other."

' Of the long loud cries that vainly pierced their darkness.'

This line belongs to no species of legitimate poetry.

' A *stern* soul jealous of its *foul* secret,'

failing to be terrific, becomes absurd: but it is a waste of time and criticism to say a word more on such ordinary stuff. We give the concluding speech of the tragedy:

' *The Attendants lift up De Zclos, who struggles to hide his face from them, and dies.*

' *Man.* False! — false! —ye cursed judges — do ye hide him?
I'll grasp the thunderbolt — rain storms of fire —
There — there — I strike! — the whizzing bolt hath struck him! —
He shrieks! — his heart's blood hisses in the flame!
Fiends rend him! — lightnings sear him! — Hell gapes for him!
Oh, I am sick with death! (*staggering among the bodies.*)
Alonzo !— Victoria! — I call, and none answer me.
I stagger up and down — an old man — and none to guide me — not one — (*takes Victoria's hand*) — Cold! — cold! — that was an ice-bolt! — I shiver — It grows — very dark — Alonzo! — Victoria! — very — very dark — [*Dies.*'

It is scarcely credible that the same theatre, which is well pleased to witness the pathetic efforts of an Otway or a Southern, and which sympathizes with the touching and subdued vehemence, or even madness of passion, in some of the nobler scenes of Shakspeare, can endure such ludicrous rhapsodies as the foregoing: but we have another specimen in another author of the day, of exactly the same description, to present to our readers; and we must therefore bid adieu to Mr. Maturin; not, however, without earnestly asking him how the writer, who can so decently and properly conduct himself as in the subjoined passage, could run into such rant and nonsense as that which we have just quoted?

' *Vic.* Oh! Hope will long abide, and hardly part
When that its mansion is a sister's bosom.
There have been those who in their infant years
Were lost, and parents in their agony
Would have giv'n worlds to weep upon their graves
The tears they shed on air! — Yet such were found;
And must not he — a youth in manhood's prime?
Ten thousand thoughts, that, but an hour o'erpast,
Would have struck daggers through a soul at ease,
Seem to its mis'ry like a blessing now.
He might have wander'd in the forest's maze —
He might in some lone mansion have found shelter:
Speak not to me, unless thou think'st like me!'

If it be said, "this is sanity; the other passage was madness;" we reply that good writers preserve "method" even in madness.

"*Insanire docent certâ ratione modoque.*"

ART. VII. *The Morbid Anatomy of the Brain, in Mania and Hydrophobia;* with the Pathology of these two Diseases, as collected from the Papers of the late Andrew Marshal, M.D., many Years Teacher of Anatomy in London; with an Account of some Experiments, to ascertain whether the Pericardium and Ventricles of the Brain contain Water in a State of Health. To which is prefixed a Sketch of his Life. By S. Sawrey, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons. 8vo. pp. 330. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

THE editor of this volume was the friend and assistant of Dr. Marshal, and at his death became the depository of his papers, having previously received an injunction from him to publish such of them as might be deemed worthy of the press. We are in consequence here presented with four treatises; of which the first is a discussion of the physiological opinion, whether water is contained in the pericardium and ventricles in the healthy state of these parts: — the second consists of two cases of hydrophobia: — the third is on the morbid anatomy of mania, the principal object being to prove that the disease generally produces disorganization in the brain; — and the fourth is on the nature of mania, in which is introduced an account of the author's opinion respecting the functions of the brain and nerves.

Before we enter on these discussions, we have a sketch of the life of Dr. Marshal, of which the introductory sentences afford a characteristic specimen.

'The life of Dr. Marshal does not present any of those incidents which give interest to biography. It had no romantic adventures; nor was it chequered by any singular misfortune; it was the life of a man of original genius, emerging, unassisted, from his native obscurity, quietly and unostentatiously maturing himself by studies and meditations unknown to the world: long hesitating in the choice of a profession; beginning late, but pursuing it, when decided upon, with all that force of mind and enthusiasm which make difficulties but the means of increased progress. At all times rather shrinking and secluding himself from public notice, than ambitious of notoriety, and yet calmly and steadily advancing to knowledge and reputation; so that he was enabled to meet the decline of life with a competence satisfying all his wishes, and with high professional respectability.'

He was born in Fifeshire, received a kind of miscellaneous and irregular education, was originally destined for an agricultural life, afterward entered on the clerical profession, and did not commence the study of medicine until he was between thirty and forty years of age. In his forty-third year he undertook the office of an anatomical lecturer in London, pursued it for sixteen years with considerable reputation and some emolument, and afterward practised medicine until his death, which took place in his seventy-first year. He never appeared as an author, but in the course of his lectures he gave publicity to some new physiological doctrines; and, if it does not appear that he is intitled to the honour of what can be properly called anatomical discovery, he was justly celebrated for the accuracy of his dissections, and for the nice developement of minute parts that had not been before sufficienty discriminated. His moral and intellectual character was deserving of great praise; and, although his biographer falls into the usual encomiastic strain of one who is celebrating the virtues of a deceased friend, yet all those who knew Dr. Marshal will recognise in these pages many appropriate features. Among his physiological tenets, those to which he seems to have attached the most consequence were the passive nature of the lymphatics, and the dependance of the nervous on the sanguiferous system. One of the most important of his anatomical researches was his minute examination of the coats of the hernial sac; the result of which, we are informed, will probably be laid before the public on some future occasion.

The first of the treatises before us respects the existence of fluid in the brain, pleura, and pericardium. Most of the distinguished anatomists and physiologists, — among others Lower, Haller, and Hunter, — maintained that a quantity of fluid was naturally present in these cavities; whereas Dr. Marshal contends that it is always occasioned by disease, or by some unnatural condition of the parts concerned. To prove his opinion, he performed some simple but direct experiments; he killed some animals suddenly by dividing the large arteries, and instantly examined the cavities in question; and he afterward killed others by immersing them in water, where some time was necessarily occupied before life was completely extinguished: in the latter, a portion of serous fluid was found in the pericardium and the cavity of the chest, while not a particle was detected in the former. Hence he concludes that, in the healthy and natural state, these cavities are completely empty; and that the fluid observed in the drowned animals was effused during the struggles that took place in the act of dying, and must therefore be regarded as the effect of a morbid process.

The second treatise, on Hydrophobia, occupies nearly half of the volume, and was left by Dr. Marshal in so perfect a state that it is printed from his MS. with only a few verbal alterations. It gives the history of two cases, and an account of the state of the body after death, with observations on the seat and nature of the disease. The narrative of the cases is very interesting; appearing to be drawn up with great accuracy, and a minute attention to every circumstance which could be regarded as of any importance. The first occurred in a lad of fourteen, the second in a servant-woman of twenty-one years of age; and from the commencement of the attack they were placed under the care of medical men who watched their symptoms with the greatest assiduity. The phænomena which they exhibited forcibly impressed Dr. Marshal's mind with some essential points of resemblance, which he conceived had not been before sufficiently noticed. One of these circumstances was the division of the disease into three stages, which exactly resembled each other in the two cases, except with regard to duration.

' The first state to be noticed was a period of health, an interval of suspence, which was passed between the application of the poison and its effects upon the system.

' The second state to be marked was the *first stage* of the disease, beginning with a local affection accompanied with a general irritation of the heart and arteries.

' The third state, which was the *second and last stage* of the malady, is a state of madness, beginning when the functions of the brain become particularly affected, and soon ending in death.'

Dr. M.'s account of the symptoms does not furnish us with any thing that is altogether novel: but some points, which had before been considered as doubtful, are noticed with peculiar care, so as clearly to establish them. Among these, the author insists much on the complete state of mental derangement that occurred in the last stage of the disease; a fact which had been called in question by some respectable writers, who referred the symptoms to convulsion: but, as Dr. M. observes, the violent motions of the body were all voluntary, and were performed under the false impression of some danger to which the patient conceived himself to be exposed, or in order to obtain relief from some pain or uneasiness which he experienced. A very ample account is detailed of the appearances discovered on dissection, and it is remarked that 'throughout the whole internal parts the disease had left palpable and deep marks of its previous existence;' whence Dr. Marshal is led to conclude that the pathology of hydrophobia ' is not so incomprehensible as it has been said to be.' He thinks that the poison is absorbed by the wounded part, and, after a certain period, produces an irritation in the 'ultimate minute arteries' of the part; which irritation is gradually propagated to the trunk, and finally extends to the heart and over the whole circulating system. One of the most remarkable of the morbid appearances was a diminution in the size of the heart and the large vessels, both arteries and veins; which immediately produced another phænomenon that was equally conspicuous, a turgescence and repletion of the small vessels. This morbid contraction extends to all the membranous parts, more especially to the throat, the lungs, the stomach, and the other abdominal viscera; producing in the membranes an increase of elasticity, and, connected with this last, an increase of the contractility of the muscular fibre. One of the most obvious and characteristic symptoms, although not actually the most important, is the state of the throat, as manifesting itself in the difficulty of deglutition. This circumstance is well explained, on the supposition of there being a morbidly contracted state of the membranous parts concerned in this operation. It consists in a train of mechanical actions, succeeding each other with the nicest adjustment; and it may be easily conceived that any derangement, even in the least of these actions, must destroy the effect of the whole series. After having minutely described the process of deglutition in health, Dr. Marshal contrasts it with the diseased condition:

'When deglutition comes to be performed by such a state of parts as has been noticed in the disease in question, it is experienced to be impracticable, and the attempt is dangerous. Every time the larynx is elevated for swallowing, the glottis is violently contracted, precluding the air too long, while the mouth of the pharynx shuts against the morsel. The person is thrown into instant agitations, just as if seized by the throat; for not only does he experience sudden strangling, but an insurmountable obstacle in the pharynx.

'To proceed. As in a healthy state of the throat, it requires a quicker jerk of the larynx upwards, and a more accurate co-operation of all the parts concerned, when we swallow liquids, than when solid food is swallowed; so in this disease, it is far more difficult to swallow liquids, than it is to attempt solids. The preclusion of the air lasts longer, and occasions proportionally greater disorder.'

The third part of the volume treats on Mania, and consists of the examination of the brain in a number of instances; principally in order to disprove what was considered as the general opinion when Dr. M. entered on the investigation, 'that the complaint left no evidences after death of its previous existence, but that it was altogether mental.' The

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number dissected was twenty-two, most of the subjects being persons who had been patients in Bethlehem Hospital. In fifteen of these cases, the head only was examined, but in the remainder the dissection was extended to the heart and the other thoracic viscera. These details would have been rendered more interesting, and more useful, if the editor had drawn up the general conclusions which might be fairly deduced from them; since it is this kind of synoptical view that renders the relation of a set of individual cases more particularly valuable. Some of the leading facts are the following:—1st, In all the cases, water was found, in a greater or less quantity, on the surface of the brain, between its convolutions, in its cavities, or about its basis. 2dly, In seventeen of them the substance of the brain was unusually firm. 3dly, In about one half of the cases, the skull had something peculiar in its form or structure. 4thly, In about one-third of them, the blood-vessels of the brain were in an unnatural state, sometimes much distended with black blood, sometimes small and contracted, and at other times exhibiting a tendency to ossification. 5thly, In two instances, purulent matter is mentioned as having been found within the skull. In many of the cases, it does not appear that any organic affection of the brain was discoverable, which certainly existed before death; so that, although, as far as their evidence extends, the point be established that mania is *accompanied* by a morbid state of the brain, it still remains to be ascertained whether this be the cause or the effect of the disease.

In the fourth division of this volume, we have observations on the nature of Mania. On this subject, Dr. Marshal left many memoranda, but they were generally in so unconnected and unfinished a state that the editor has been obliged to use his own judgment in the selection and arrangement of them. As a previous step to the knowlege of the pathology of mania, it is necessary to make ourselves acquainted with the functions of the brain and nerves in their healthy state, and with this inquiry he accordingly commences. The primary function of the nervous system is said to consist in its rendering us conscious of our own existence, and of the existence and properties of surrounding bodies. Living systems without brains can have no consciousness; and, in proportion as the brain is injured, so is the faculty of consciousness impaired. The nerves are the media by which the brain receives the impression of external objects: some of them communicating with what are called the organs of sense, while others are diffused more widely over different parts of the body, producing the various modes of feeling. The brain is alike subservient to the intellectual powers, to the internal senses, and to the passions: but all these complicated effects are referred for their origin to the impression of external objects. As the brain is the instrument by which these consequences are produced, it might naturally be supposed that a mechanical injury of its structure would affect its functions; and this, it is alleged, is always found to be the case. Having enlarged on these topics, the author adds; ‘ So much we have advanced respecting the precise function of the brain. It is established, we hope, beyond all doubt, that the brain, so far as a corporeal organ is concerned, gives sensation, intellect, volition, appetite, and passion.’ These opinions do not materially differ from those that are generally adopted: but Dr. M. next proceeds to a point which has been the subject of much controversy, and on which he embraces the least popular side of the question. Having proved, as he says, ‘ that the brain is the corporeal organ of sensation, and of all the powers which naturally grow out of sensation,’ he next proposes to shew ‘ that the brain seems to possess no other powers.’ He particularly refers to the doctrine ‘that the action and vigour of the muscles denominated involuntary, such as those of the heart, intestines, arteries, and lymphatic vessels, depend on an energy derived from the brain.’ The principal arguments which he employs to disprove this position are the following. Involuntary contractility exists in living systems that are not furnished with a nervous system; in animals that possess brains, contractility precedes sensibility, as is the case with the chicken *in ovo* and the fœtus *in utero*, where the heart is formed and acts before the least rudiment of a brain can be detected; and a variety of circumstances in the animal economy tend to shew that the action of the brain is more dependent on that of the heart than the heart on the brain: especially the fact, which seems to be decisively proved by direct experiment, that all the powers of the brain cease immediately with the action of the heart, but that the heart will act after its separation from the brain.—We confess that we have always been disposed to adopt Dr. Marshal's view of the subject, and we think that his reasoning must go far in confirming it. We are not, however, so well satisfied with what he next advances; that the action of the voluntary muscles does not depend on an energy transmitted to them from the brain. He observes that volition only determines the end, and is not directed to particular muscles; and that the muscles called voluntary, and which appear the most completely under the controul of the will in ordinary circumstances, sometimes act without volition, sometimes without consciousness, and at other times even contrary to volition. Hence he comes to this conclusion:

> 'For these, and other reasons, we would submit, that the brain is not the efficient cause of muscular motion of any kind: that the energy of muscles is evident; but that it depends neither upon the energy of the brain, nor the vis nervea; for there is no energy in the brain, and no vis nervea of the nerves in the sense these terms have been taken in. The distribution of muscles into voluntary and involuntary gives no illustration of their nature, since no exact limits can be fixed between voluntary and involuntary muscles — no objection however can be made to using the terms voluntary in respect of muscles, if no more be intended by the term than an energy of muscles accompanying volition.'

After having ascertained the functions of the brain in its healthy state, we are better prepared for entering on the consideration of the change which it experiences in mania. From the view which Dr. Marshal took of the subject, as well as from the result of his dissections, he was led to conclude 'that, in all cases of derangement of the intellectual powers, there will be an actual disease in the organ from which these powers proceed.' He maintained that the original conformation of the brain was more or less perfect in various individuals; and in this way he explained the different effects produced on different brains by the same causes. It is, however, admitted that an examination of the brain after death cannot throw any light on the *nature* of the disease, excepting so far as to prove that it is connected with the state of the corporeal organ; that which we observe can only be regarded as the *consequence:* but it is presumed that this, as well as the mental derangement, must depend on diseased vascular action. The effused fluid proves that increased action must have existed, but it is probable that a mere increase would not be sufficient without some perversion in the mode of action. This diseased action is produced both by mental and by physical causes, and many circumstances lead us to conclude that these two sets of causes mutually affect each other. Whatever tends to increase the impetus of the blood through the vessels of the brain will produce a state of mental excitement; while, on the contrary, a high degree of mental excitement may augment the action of the vessels: but, before these causes can produce mania, it seems necessary that a predisposition to the disease should exist; and this is supposed to be generally indicated by an obvious malconformation of the skull, either naturally existing or being the effect of injury or disease.

The length to which we have extended this article will prove our opinion of the importance of Dr. Marshal's labours.

We think that the editor has performed a valuable service t science by preserving these memorials of the investigation an the ability of his deceased friend; and it gives us pleasure t see the name of a very worthy individual rescued fro oblivion.

Art. VIII. *Dr.* Nott's *Edition of the Works of the Earl Surrey and Sir T. Wyatt.*

[*Art. concluded from the Rev. for June.*]

Our notice having been already directed to the first volum of this publication, containing the works of Lord Surre we proceed now to Sir Thomas Wyatt, who occupies Vol. I Here the arrangement is nearly similar to that which wa pursued on the former occasion, except that the space cor responding to the pages of the dissertation on early Englis poetry is devoted to an essay on Wyatt's poems. We als propose, commencing with the memoirs, to follow the sam course of remark as before.

The first mention of the family of Wyatt occurs in th reign of Edward III., when they were situated at Southang in Yorkshire; and their name in early times was spelt vari ously, Wiat, Wiot, Wyote, and Wyott. Their genealogic descent is not traced by the editor, sufficient documents pro bably not existing; and the first person concerning whom w receive any individual information is Sir Henry Wyat (father of the poet,) who was highly esteemed for his abiliti by Henry VII. He was continued in places of honou and trust under Henry VIII., and, having married abo the year 1502, his lady presented him in the following yea with a son, Thomas, the subject of our present inquiries. Th family were at this period in possession of large estates b purchase in Kent, at Allington Castle, in which county appears that Sir Thomas Wyatt was born.

In the dearth of any certain information relative to S Thomas's instructor, Dr. Nott suggests the name of the famo Lily, the first and then existing master of St. Paul's schoo but of the value of these presumptions we have already r corded our opinion.[*] In the year 1515, at the age of twelv he was entered at St. John's College, Cambridge, where he is sai to have proceeded B.A. in 1518., and A.M., 1520. Antho à Wood, always eager to claim distinction for his own *Alm Mater*, asserts that Wyatt, after having left Cambridge, r

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[*] P. 115. Rev. for June.

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moved for the completion of his studies to Wolsey's College, at Oxford: but the date of the incorporation of that society seems of itself sufficient to negative the claim.[*] Dr. Nott also disputes the fact of the young poet's travels in Italy, as mentioned by the same authority; and it certainly is rather extraordinary, if any part of his life was occupied in travelling to that country, that neither he himself nor any of his learned cotemporaries, by whom his name is recorded, have noticed his visit to the scenes of classical antiquity; especially when some of his shorter excursions are distinctly recorded. The most interesting story of the early years of the poet's manhood rests unfortunately on very slight evidence indeed; and we are indebted for it rather to the ingenuity and imagination than to the research of the présent editor. We will first exhibit the foundation, and then the superstructure.

It is certain that Wyatt loved a person who was called Anna, as his own poems testify; and it is equally clear that he complains of the vanity of his pursuit, from a king having set his affections on the object of his admiration. It appears likewise that, after the arrest of Anne Boleyn, he, as well as others, was questioned respecting the nature of his former intimacy with the unfortunate queen; and, lastly, we are assured that a tradition of such an attachment was long preserved in Wyatt's family. On these few facts, Dr. Nott has written a really pretty little novel, and inserted it in his memoirs of the poet. The attachment commenced at the French court; it was renewed at that of Westminster, when Anne Boleyn was in attendance on Queen Catherine; similarity of pursuits cherished and increased it; and, when matured, it became—what?—why, an attachment purely Platonic, 'and the lively tenderness of an innocent but dangerous friendship:' for Wyatt, like his friend Surrey, was a married man. This was the last event of his life, says his biographer, which bore 'the character of levity, or the romance of youth;' and from that time he looked on the "*Libros Panæti, et Socraticam domum,*" as the best provision for advancing years, or began, in his own words,

"To deep himself in travail more and more;"

in which expressions, however, the poet clearly includes his attention to the public business of the state. The first situation of any great responsibility, which he is recorded to have filled, was that of ambassador to the court of Charles V.; and indeed the larger part of his active life, which was but a short one, was passed in the service of his master, at Madrid, in France during the progress of the Emperor, and subsequently in the Netherlands. His letters on business connected with these employments display a singularly quick and penetrating mind, and far exceed in interest those which have been preserved of Lord Surrey. He lays open the insincere character of the Emperor, whose motives and views he dissects with consummate ability: while he was by no means wanting in the exercise of bold remonstrance, or cooler political debate. Qualities such as these probably rendered him no very agreeable resident to the Emperor at his court; and his known attachment to the principles of the Reformation did not well consort with Spanish bigotry. Influenced partly by these motives, and partly by a regard to his private circumstances, which were much embarrassed by prolonged absence, he frequently solicited his recall: but the interval allowed him by the grant of his request was short, as Henry well knew the value of his minister.

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[*] A.D. 1524.

Dr. Nott presumes, with much reason, that an additional motive for Sir Thomas's wish to relinquish his employments may be found in the precarious state of the power of his friend and warm protector, Cromwell, who was now tottering on the brink of ruin, prepared for him by the machinations of Bonner and his associates. Wyatt's return to England in 1540 was nevertheless of little avail with regard to such an object; and the end of Cromwell is as well known to those who are in any degree conversant with English history, as the affecting advice given to him by Wolsey, when under very similar circumstances, (embellished by the inventive genius of our great dramatic poet,) is to every Englishman who can read. Sir Thomas's fortunes were in some measure connected with those of his patron, and he was put under arrest and placed in very ignominious confinement shortly after Cromwell's fall. The miseries of this incarceration are expressed by him very pathetically and simply in the following lines:

> ' Sighs are my food; my drink they are my tears;
> Clinking of fetters such music would crave:
> Stink, and close air, away my life wears;
> Innocency is all the hope I have.
> Rain, wind, or weather, I judge by mine ears;
> Malice assaults that righteousness should have.
> Sure I am, Bryan, this wound shall heal again;
> But yet, alas! the scar shall still remain." (P. 72. of Poems.)

Wyatt successfully repelled the accusations of his enemies; and, indeed, we should imagine that he was not a man likely to have excited the suspicions even of a jealous prince. He

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was of serious, contemplative habits, and the romantic spirit of youth, although he died when only thirty-nine years old, appears to have evaporated much sooner with him than with his young friend Surrey. He had been called earlier not into active life, but into the serious occupations of active life; and this circumstance, united with some degree of natural philosophic gravity, (in which he indulged in the intervals of business,) effectually chastised his mind. Lord Surrey's employments were military, but those of Wyatt were almost exclusively diplomatic. His escape from the scaffold, — in those days one of the common terminations of the life of eminent men in public situations, — did not greatly prolong his existence, for he died of a fever at Sherborne, in Dorsetshire, whither he had gone to meet an ambassador from the Emperor, who had landed in the west, in the autumn of October 1542, and was buried in the great church in that town. No man, probably, was ever honoured with more epitaphs than Wyatt: but, as the editor observes, they may be more truly called elegies; since, although the *næniæ* of Surrey and Leland are extant, no monumental inscription is now found to mark the spot on which Sir Thomas lies, and scarcely a traditionary story remains to assign one for the repose of his mortal part. We give Dr. Nott full credit for his enthusiasm in proceeding to make every possible investigation, personally, at the almost undoubted place of Wyatt's interment.

We shall leave our readers to collect the summary of the poet's character from the facts which we have noticed respecting him: but we must add that Dr. Nott represents him as possessed of an uncommonly fine countenance and person. The anecdotes related of him are but few: — one may be amusing: —

> 'One day as Wyatt was conversing with the King he said playfully to him, "Sir, I have at last found out a benefice that must needs make me a rich man, for it would give me an hundred pounds a year more than I could want. I beseech your Majesty bestow it on me."—"Ha!" quoth the King, "we knew not that we had any such in our kingdom!"—"Yes, in good faith, Sir," replied Wyatt, "there is one such! The Provostship of Eton! There a man hath his diet, his lodging, his horse meat, his servants wages, and riding charges, and an hundred pounds a year beside."'

We hope that the present Provost's '*diet*' and '*riding charges*' would still make the situation an enviable one for a man who has wasted the prime of life, and much of his own independance, in the ungrateful service of diplomacy. The fact of Wyatt's intimacy with Surrey, who was, however, by some years younger, is to be collected from little else than the poetical effusions of the latter on the premature death of his friend, if such he was: but a living poet may elegize a departed poet, without implying much personal attachment; more especially when the former added, to the feeling of congeniality of taste, a strong sentiment of respect, as for a preceptor in his own peculiar art. We conceive that Wyatt's character as a man stands higher than that of Surrey; since he appears to have been free from a certain degree of petulance and assumption, which, we think, the biographical accounts of that nobleman shew to have formed a part of his disposition. As a poet, Wyatt was as certainly eclipsed by his successor: but on this subject a few observations on the next portion of the volume, 'the essay on Wyatt's poems,' will more fully explain our opinions.

Dr. Nott's 'essay' is a work of much less effort than his 'dissertation' in the preceding volume. Yet it displays, in an easy style, very considerable taste, judgment, and knowlege of his subject. He complains of Warton's observations on this head as too general, and such they are; — he might have added that they are too plainly marked with a want of research and discrimination: — his object, therefore, has been to supply the palpable deficiencies in his predecessor.

Many of Surrey's earlier productions had probably been communicated to Wyatt, and others he must have seen from various quarters: but, as he was the Earl's superior in age, he did not adopt to any great extent the improvements which were made in versification by a younger aspirant; or, if he was uninfluenced by any such feelings, these more enlarged views and polished constructions of language had not, from their novelty, been at that time duly appreciated by the lovers of elegant literature. Wyatt, therefore, as it has been said of Propertius, shews the scholar more than the poet, but in a different way; the Roman, by following a string of ideas naturalized in his language; the Englishman, by translating the expressions as well as borrowing from the imagination of poets of other countries. Dr. Nott says, 'he seems to have begun *in every instance* by translating from some other author,' whether Greek, Latin, Italian, French, or Spanish; an observation which, while it gives him high credit as a linguist, deprives him of all claim to any share of inventive genius. We have seen nothing that is evidently drawn from the original Greek; and those pieces which have been derived from other sources have seldom, if ever, been improved by the translation. His versification was formed on the old rythmical system, of which we have already spoken; though some short compositions occur which are harmonious and metrical, whether accidentally or purposely: but neither in the language of poetry nor in the modulation of it, nor in the choice of images, is he to be placed in competition with Surrey; nor has he any great claims of superiority over his poetical predecessors.

His poems consist of sonnets, odes, songs, and epigrams, a versification of the seven penitential psalms, and some satires. The few forms in which they have hitherto appeared may be considered as an argument against their popularity in any age. Most of the poems printed in the present edition have been given from early MSS., from which sources many have been added that had never before appeared in print; and the text of the others has been considerably amended. The most important of these MSS. was one that was known by the name of its possessor Dr. Harington of Bath, now deceased; the history of which is curious.

> 'The MS. came early into the possession of the Harington family. They have had it certainly from the time of Queen Elizabeth, as is proved by the hand-writing of Sir John Harington, which occurs frequently in it. Its condition is not as good as might have been reasonably expected. Many leaves have been torn away, particularly the title-page, of which enough remains to make us regret that the whole was not preserved. Nor is this the only injury the MS. has sustained. It was made a waste-paper book by Mr.—— Harington, who in the time of the rebellion was much attached to the republican party. Mr. Harington was a pious man and a biblical scholar: he had moreover a turn for mathematics. Unfortunately, he was likewise a lawyer, a justice of the peace, and a rigid economist. To make room therefore for his diagrams, and family receipts; his abstracts of sermons heard, his notices of justice meetings attended, and his "heads of charges to be delivered at sessions," he has not only written unmercifully over whole pages of Wyatt's poetry, without the least regard to rhyme or reason; but has in many instances studiously crossed out the lines, that they might not obtrude themselves upon his profounder speculations. Luckily Wyatt's ink was better than Mr. Harington's; and therefore the original writing may yet be traced through the dim veil thrown over it, by the laborious and thrifty justice.'

The two of next importance are in the possession of the Duke of Devonshire and Lord Calthorpe. From the former manuscript, several pieces have been taken, which had not previously been published, but which have many arguments in favour of their true filiation; though some of them are much more harmonious (and clearly metrical) than the majority of those which have been long recognized as Sir T. Wyatt's productions.

'*The Lover's Lute cannot be blamed though it sing of his Lady's Unkindness.*

'Blame not my lute! for he must sound
Of this or that as liketh me;
For lack of wit the lute is bound
To give such tunes as pleaseth me;
Though my songs be somewhat strange
And speak such words as touch thy change,
Blame not my lute!

'My lute! alas! doth not offend,
Though that perforce he must agree
To sound such tunes as I intend,
To sing to them that heareth me;
Then though my song be somewhat plain,
And toucheth some that use to feign,
Blame not my lute!

'My lute and strings may not deny,
But as I strike they must obey;
Break not them then so wrongfully,
But wreak thyself some other way;
And though the songs which I indite,
Do quit thy change with rightful spite,
Blame not my lute!

'Spite asketh spite, and changing change,
And falsed faith must needs be known;
The faults so great, the case so strange;
Of right it must abroad be blown:
Then since that by thine own desert
My songs do tell how true thou art,
Blame not my lute!

'Blame but thyself that hast misdone,
And well deserved to have blame;
Change thou thy way, so evil begone,
And then my lute shall sound that same:
But if 'till then my fingers play,
By thy desert their wonted way;
Blame not my lute!

'Farewell! unknown; for though thou break
My strings in spite with great disdain,
Yet have I found out for thy sake,
Strings for to string my lute again:
And if perchance this sely rhyme,
Do make thee blush, at any time,
Blame not my lute!'

This is one of the most favourable specimens, and in many parts it undoubtedly approaches very near to the manner and versification of Surrey. It was probably, in company with some others, written at a time when that nobleman had begun to have some influence over the taste of the age. Yet it must be allowed that Wyatt generally has more metrical lines than Chaucer. Of the lighter pieces, we select the 'Riddle of a Gift given by a Lady:" but we confess that it is somewhat abstruse; and we beg to observe that we will not trouble our readers to forward their solutions to us.

'*A Riddle of a Gift given by a Lady.*

'A lady gave me a gift she had not;
And I received her gift I took not;
She gave it me willingly, and yet she would not;
And I received it, albeit I could not.
If she give it me, I force not;
And if she take it again, she cares not;
Construe what this is, and tell not;
For I am fast sworn, I may not.'

Altogether, the satires have, perhaps, the most merit, though their claims to originality are but scanty; at which we are the more surprized, when we recollect that a very keen observation of men and manners was one of the most prominent faculties of the author's mind. They are also deficient in harmony: but the succession of images is natural and pleasing.

Whatever may be the comparative merits of Sir Thomas Wyatt as a poet, he claims a decided superiority as a prose-writer over most of his cotemporaries. His official correspondence, on which we have already made some cursory remarks, presents a lively picture of the penetrating mind of the writer, as well as of the general politics of the age in which he lived; and it contains much matter for the biographer of princes, and for the general historian of the early half of the sixteenth century. Two letters of parental advice to his son, at the age of fifteen, are preserved; which are not, perhaps, sufficiently minute in point of precept for a youth of those years: but, as compositions full of sound sense, delivered in plain yet frequently dignified language, they challenge no inconsiderable degree of praise, and have much less quaintness of expression than we might have very naturally expected. 'Read oft this my letter,' says he to his son, 'and it shall be as though I had often written to you; and think that I have herein printed a fatherly affection to you. If I may see that I have not lost my pain, mine shall be the contentation and yours the profit: and upon condition that you follow my advertisement, I send you God's blessing and mine, as well to come to honesty, as to increase of years.'

His 'Oration,' spoken before the judges, after his indictment and the evidence had been produced against him, adds to the common merits of his style the praise of close reasoning and eloquent appeal: but it is too much connected in its several parts to admit of any insulated passage being cited with effect. The succeeding extract paints its writer to the life, as well in his mode of discharging the duties of his public capacity as in his general shrewdness in conversation; and, in point of simplicity and perspicuity, it might form no bad model for the rounders of periods in modern diplomacy. The letter from which it is taken is addressed to Cromwell, Lord Privy Seal, and details the circumstances of an interview with the Emperor, Charles V. Sir Thomas Wyatt relates the execution of some other commissions, and then proceeds thus:

'After this, shewing countenance of willing to take my leave, asking if his Majesty would command me any other thing, and whether there were any thing of his news that he would participate with the King his brother, he said there was none other, but that he had sent offer and parties to the most Christian King, whereunto he had made him answer, and that so it seemeth the things go in long. This was something after the manner, moving his head; and by cause I perceived I should have of him but such generality, I spake not with him in that matter. "And of the things of Cleves, Sir," quoth I. "As ye see, Mons. Embassadeur," quoth he. "By my truth, Sir," quoth I, "for that in those matters I never had word from the King my Master since I wrote him your answer, I take it that he takes himself for resolutely answered in that request; but I would have wished that he might have found more facility in your Majesty; and I suppose ye should have found him as meet a man for your purpose as any other both for his friendship with you and alliance with him. And although I doubt not that he would be glad that betwixt you and his brother in law there should be good conclusion; yet when he shall know that, that is commonly spoken here, that in that means other are put in trust and he refused, it may minister unto him matter of evil interpretation." "I promise you," quoth he, "Mons. l'Embassadeur, I never used any means in the matter, nor never made other answer to any man but such as I made unto you. It is true that my brother hath spoken unto me therein, and the Duke of Brunswick, that would needs go unto him; but I assure you there is no other mean but that likewise I would the King your master should have persuaded him to do as he ought to do, and he shall find me his good neighbour, Cousin, and his good Emperor, for he is subject to the empire. I have forborne much time, and now the year is well forward, to see if he would come to reason."

'"Sir," quoth I, "I understand that he hath alway offered to stand in justice." "Who shall be," quoth he, "the justice, Mons. l'Embassadeur? it is I that must be in that case." "Let it be so, Sir," quoth I; "yet what particularly mean you by that, Ye would have him do as he ought to do? It must be by order of law to try his title." He wagged his head, " No, no," quoth he, " there is no title." " At least, Sir," quoth I, " he pretendeth a title which he offereth to put at trial." " What," quoth he, " and usurp the possession? let him therein do the law as he ought to do, and relinquish the possession which yet is no possession." " Sir," quoth I, " I know not the law." " Yes marry do ye," quoth he, and laughed. " Nay, in good faith, Sir," quoth I, " I am no legist." " Well," quoth he, " I have learned so far." " But me thinketh, Sir," quoth I, " that Mons. de Cleves, if he should have no more confidence in your equity than in his own power, should be but evil councelled to relinquish his possession." " He must look," quoth he, " at his superior hands for justice by order of law and not by constraint." " Sir," quoth I, " in this purpose I have no commission, nor will not detain your Majesty in pleading of that I cannot skill of." Thus with good and gentle passions we parted friends.'

With this quotation we take leave of Sir Thomas Wyatt. To the editor we consider ourselves as under very great obligations: but more, perhaps, for the insight which he has given us into the literary character of the reign of Henry VIII. than for the republication of the poems of either Surrey or Wyatt. We suspect that these, even in their present inviting form, will still be sparingly read, and those of Wyatt very little indeed: but we trust that the information, which has been applied to illustrate them, will long remain entertaining and instructive in perusal, and highly useful in reference. It is not that the path trodden by Dr. Nott has hitherto been either unknown or overlooked; for others have also improved the access to it: but it would be difficult to mention any labourer in it who has cleared away more of the obstructions than the present editor.

It never would have occurred to us to have objected to any person in holy orders, that he had a passion for polite literature or poetry; or that his editorial labours in those walks of human taste and learning were incompatible with the duties of his profession, serious as the latter undoubtedly are. Yet some such objections, from whatever quarter, seem to have been anticipated by Dr. Nott; or we can assign no reason for a laboured justification of such pursuits in clergymen, which appears in the preface to this second volume. The warmth with which the Doctor eulogizes the exertions of churchmen in the concerns of general literature, and in departments wholly unconnected with their professional studies, has, perhaps, in one instance led him rather beyond the bounds of moderation. When he speaks of the higher degree of purity in our literature, compared with that of the other nations in

Europe, (meaning, we presume, modern literature,) and attributes it principally to the circumstance of so large a share of it having fallen into the hands of the clergy, he certainly does not speak without reason: but he adduces one only out of many and diversified causes. The general moral feelings of the readers should be estimated, as well as the sense of propriety in the writers; and it is not sufficient to say that the former have been gradually superinduced by the latter. Partially they may have been, but literary history shews us that authors have followed the prevailing taste of their times nearly as often as they have directed it.

Art. IX. *A Practical Treatise on finding the Latitude and Longitude at Sea:* with Tables designed to facilitate the Calculations. Translated from the French of M. De Rossel, late Captain in the Navy, &c. By Thomas Myers, A.M. of the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich, &c. 8vo. 16s. Boards. Robinsons, &c.

It may undoubtedly be said that in no country in the world is a correct knowlege of navigation so highly important as in our own, on account of the magnitude of our navy, the extent of our commerce, and the number of our foreign possessions: nor can any state boast of better practical navigators, or more skilful pilots: yet, if we are rightly informed, they do not stand equally pre-eminent with regard to their scientific acquirements. This deficiency is probably owing to an unusual paucity of elementary treatises on nautical science. Hamilton Moore is the oracle of our midshipmen; and, in *their opinion*, whatever is there is right, and whatever is not there is at least unnecessary: so that it is nearly as likely to find a midshipman's locker without a *Hamilton Moore*, as it would be to see a farm-house unprovided with "The Pilgrim's Progress," and "The Whole Duty of Man." Few persons, indeed, are properly qualified to compose an elementary treatise on nautical astronomy; to accomplish which, in such a manner as will be creditable to the author and useful to the student, it is necessary that the former should possess a good practical and a good scientific knowlege of the subject; an union of qualifications not very frequently found in the same person. An instance, however, occurs in the author of the present treatise; who, besides much practical skill, acquired in his professional duties as a captain in the French navy, bears also a high scientific character, being well known as the friend and associate of the celebrated *D'Entrecasteaux*. It is, perhaps, but justice to M.

Rossel to add here, from the translator's preface, the opinion of M. Biot, in whose *Astronomie Physique* this treatise was first published, and who thus describes the nature of the work and the qualifications of its author:

'" There is one branch of astronomy which has never been treated in a convenient manner in elementary works, because this required great accuracy and simplicity joined to an experience beyond what most men have an opportunity of acquiring. This is Nautical Astronomy; which has either been treated too superficially or in much too scientific a manner for mariners. I have, however, been very fortunate in having this part added to my work, by one who ranks among those who are best qualified to write on the subject. This is M. de Rossel, late Captain in the French Navy, coadjutor in and writer of the voyage of *D'Entrecasteaux.* The observations made by M. de Rossel and the other officers, during the voyage, have generally been regarded as the most accurate ever made in any French maritime expedition; and M. de Rossel's discussion of them as constituting an excellent treatise on Nautical Astronomy. It is a treatise of this kind, but more simple and concise, which this author has added to my work. It will be found to contain all the methods of calculation requisite at sea, and, what is not less valuable, they are given under the most simple and commodious forms that can be employed in their application. Mariners will not fail to remark the ingenious tables which M. de Rossel has calculated for facilitating the use of Douwe's method of finding the latitude from two observations of the sun taken out of the meridian. This method, which may frequently be of great utility, is rendered so easy and convenient, by these tables, that its use will doubtless become familiar to all mariners." '

Such a recommendation of this treatise, from a mathematician so qualified to appreciate its merits as M. Biot, seems to have induced Mr. Myers to translate it into English; and, in order to render it the more complete, and better adapted to perfect the young mariner in the most difficult branches of his art, he has added a considerable number of practical examples; an Introduction to the Tables, explanatory of their Construction and Use; a Table of the Right Ascensions and Declinations of the principal fixed Stars, used in finding the Longitude at Sea; a Table of the Logarithms of Numbers, and their Complements, to five Places of Figures; and a Table of Logarithmic Sines and Cosines, with their Complements, and Differences corresponding to every 10 Seconds. To all these we are glad to find that he has likewise subjoined Dr. Brinkley's method of clearing the lunar distance; a method which we strongly recommended to nautical students, and writers on navigation, in our review of the Transactions of the Irish Academy, vol. xi. (see M. R. vol. lxxiv.) The merits of this rule consist in its involving no distinction of c quiring only short tables with single arguments; and portional parts being necessary, except such as may l out by inspection, and these for only one quantity be conclusion. The tables to which we here allude are the translator: so that the work contains in itself a requisite for the complete solution of every useful case tical astronomy; the mariner being of course sup possess the proper Nautical Almanac. The problem the translator has added as practical examples for the are principally adapted to the Almanacs of the ye and 1815; which, therefore, will also be requisite w student is merely pursuing his investigations.

The original work is divided into seven chapt notes, and an appendix: viz. 1. Preliminary Observat 2. Corrections which should be made in all the obser tudes of the Sun, Moon, and Stars. 3. On Latitude, several Methods of Calculation. 4. Calculation of th Angle, and of the Altitudes of the heavenly Bodies. 5 gulating marine Chronometers, and employing them Determination of the Longitude. 6. On finding the L by Means of the lunar Distance. 7. On finding the De of the magnetic Needle by Observations of the Sun's A or Amplitude, and by the astronomical Bearings of te Objects. The notes which follow contain the analytic tigations of the preceding rules; and the appendix pied with the solutions, at length, of various problem others are left as practical exercises for the student, w answers. Next follows Dr. Brinkley's method of clea lunar distance; which, in order to assist in giving to i circulation that its simplicity renders desirable, we sh scribe:

'1. Find, by help of a table, the parallax answerin moon's altitude, and to the complement of the altitude. T will be the argument of table 1. Or

'Compute them by adding the proportional log. of the tal parallax to the arithmetical complement of the log. log. sin. of alt., the sums will be the prop. logs. of the re parallaxes.

'2. Moon's par. — moon's refrac. = corr. of alt. Take (corr. of altitude + star's or sun's refraction + moon's star's altitude (or sun's alt. + par.) This diff. is the diff altitudes. Find also diff. of apparent altitudes.

'3. When the sun is observed, add together the nu tables 1, 2, 4, and 5. When a star is observed, add the in tables 1, 2, 3, and 5, log. of this sum (its index bein 3 + number of figures), + log. (vers. sin. observed dis vers. sin. diff. observed altitudes) rejecting 10 from the index = log. of a number to be subtracted from the above diff. of versed sines.

'4. The remainder + vers. sin. diff. of true altitudes = vers. sin. of true distance.

'Observation. No distinction of cases occurs. No proportional parts but such as are taken out by inspection. The versed sines may be considered as whole numbers, the radius being (1,000,000). In taking out the versed sines of the observed distance, the seconds may be reserved and added to the conclusion. Also in finding the log. of (vers. sin. observed distance — vers. sin. diff. obs. alt.) the two last figures may be considered as cyphers.

'For those conversant in contracted decimal multiplication, the third precept may stand as follows: —

'3. When the sun is observed, take the sum of the numbers in table 1, 2, 4, and 5. When a star, the sum of the numbers in table 1, 2, 3, and 5. Find also the excess of the versed sine of the observed distance, above the versed sine of the difference of observed altitudes. The figures in the above-mentioned sum must be increased to five, if necessary, by prefixing cyphers to the left hand of them. Place the first figure of the sum under the third figure of the excess from the right hand, the second figure under the fourth figure of the excess, &c., thus inverting the figures of the sum. The product found, according to the method of contracted decimal multiplication, is to be subtracted from the excess.'

Mr. Myers's introduction to the tables, occupying about 20 pages, succeeds to the above; and lastly we have the tables themselves, which are eighteen in number, and are contained in 114 pages.

The whole of this volume, both text and tables, with the exception of two or three of the latter, which seem to be the work of another hand, is very neatly printed; and, as far as we have been able to compare the translation with the original, we think that Mr. Myers has done justice to his author: so that, considering also the additional examples and the several notes and illustrations, he has performed an useful service to the British mariner, to whom we recommend an attentive perusal and study of the work.

Art. X. *The History of the University of Edinburgh;* chiefly compiled from original Papers and Records never before published. By Alexander Bower, Author of the Life of Luther. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 4s. Boards. Murray. 1817.

Opportunities for acquiring every branch of knowlege are now so generally afforded, and brought so much within the reach of all descriptions of persons, — we meet on every side with so many solicitations of teachers, and so many notices of treatises all professing to convey information with the smallest portion of exertion to the pupils, — that we are apt to think that this facility and amplitude of instruction have always existed, and that they are regular and necessary concomitants of a state of society civilized in any ordinary degree. The slightest recurrence, however, to the history of the progress of the human mind, from the time of its torpor and depression under the great political calamities which so long overwhelmed the most civilized nations of Europe, is sufficient to convince us that opportunities of acquiring even the rudiments of learning were at one time unknown, or extremely scanty; and that those which we estimate now as very small and common attainments were once considered as high intellectual acquirements. In the course of such inquiries, too, however rapid, we cannot fail to regard with veneration those men who, by their mental energies alone, and unassisted by any of those advantages which so essentially aid the progress of the modern student, vanquished the difficulties of their situation; and who, diffusing in their life-time a spirit of literary improvement over a widely extended circle, left, at their death, a record of laborious exertions to which the men of the present day are rarely equal.

It appears to us, therefore, that the history of distinguished seminaries, from their first rise, must always be interesting; — not only as shewing the progress of human attainments, but as also exhibiting certain important aspects of the collateral history of civil society, and the mutual action of each on the other.

The University, of which the history forms the object of the work before us, has long held a distinguished rank among seminaries of learning. Men of great reputation in all the various branches of human knowlege have successively occupied its chairs; and the pupils who have been subjected to its discipline have filled with the highest celebrity many of those departments in civil life, which afford the greatest scope for the display of talent and enterprise. Yet the University of Edinburgh is the youngest of all the seminaries so denominated in Great Britain. It was not founded till after the Reformation; and it had consequently, from the first, comparatively few of the peculiarities arising from the monastic institutions which, even at this day, form a distinguishing characteristic in the constitution and rules of all the other establishments of this nature. It also differs from all the rest with respect to its endowments; which are so scanty that the emoluments of the professors depend chiefly on the fees which they receive from the students,—and these are also regulated;—a system which evidently tends to unite the public reputation with the private advantage of the professors. Owing to this cause, also, it has been more easily susceptible of those alterations in the arrangement of the course of study, and of other changes, to which the progress of society and of science have from time to time given rise. We believe, indeed, that, in consequence of this very power of adaptation to existing circumstances, and the absence of what are considered as essential college-rules for the students, it is in England scarcely deemed a regular University, but is regarded as a kind of anomalous institution; capable, it is true, of imparting much useful knowlege, but, being destitute of the endowments, discipline, and forms which distinguish our venerable Sister-Universities, supposed to be unprovided with the necessary title to confer the legitimate honours and character of scholarship. From these circumstances, and from the merited reputation of the University of Edinburgh, its origin, its progress, and its connection with the literary, ecclesiastical, and political history of the times form a very interesting subject of inquiry.

These are accordingly the objects which the present author, in his preface, states that he has in view. Being himself an *alumnus* of the University, where he observes he had spent the most agreeable part of his life, he mentions the great desire which he had long cherished to record its history; a species of inquiry to which he had always been partial, and to which some of his former literary researches had contributed to direct and stimulate his attention. While preparing his work, he received the most liberal assistance from the Principal and other public officers of the University, in being allowed a free use of its records and manuscripts; and, besides the perusal of certain valuable papers in the private possession of some of the professors, he was also favoured by the Lord Provost and Magistrates of Edinburgh with an unqualified access to the city archives, which, as the Town-Council are the patrons of the University, contain the most authentic and ample documents of its history. With these advantages, therefore, the book certainly comes before the public with at least the claim of authenticity; and, as it is the only history of this celebrated and singular University, (except a fragment of its very earliest years,) we have little doubt that it will be received with some welcome.

Before he enters on the particular detail, Mr. Bower devotes three short chapters to a kind of *histoire raisonnée* of Universities in general; tracing the history of public schools supported by the state from the earliest times; and considering the Palatine school, instituted by Charlemagne, as that which gave rise to the oldest in Europe, the University of Paris. In these preliminary chapters, also, is discussed the origin of the practice of classing students into nations; of the different faculties of theology, law, and medicine; of titles and degrees; of public officers; and of the privileges and even the academical dress of students.

In the succeeding chapter, the author enters more immediately on the subject of the work. When briefly reviewing the history of the institution of public seminaries in Scotland, he takes notice that, although the ecclesiastics had always been employed in teaching, (together with the Latin tongue,) however imperfectly, the first principles of learning, it was not till 1410 that a pedagogy was founded at St. Andrew's on an extensive scale;, in which divinity, law, medicine, and the liberal arts, were proposed to be taught. In 1450 a similar course was established at Glasgow; and in 1494 at Aberdeen. In the latter of these years, during the fifth parliament of James IV., the barons and freeholders were enjoined to send their eldest sons to grammar-schools, in order to attain "perfite Latin," who were afterward to remain three years at the "schules of art and jure, so as they may have knowledge of the laws;"—and this under a penalty. From the number of students who resorted at that time to the Universities, and which was great, considering the population of Scotland, it would appear that the grammar or Latin schools were not few. Buchanan went from one of them to the University of Paris, at the age of 16, in 1520, and returned to Scotland in 1561, when the Reformed Religion had just triumphed over the Roman Catholic. The author thinks that it was probably owing to this celebrated scholar that the first proposal of the College of Edinburgh had been made to Queen Mary; she having, soon after his return, granted a charter for its foundation, but which, owing to opposition from some interested courtiers connected with the other Universities, was not then carried into effect. In 1578, Mr. James Lawson, one of the ministers of Edinburgh, a zealous promoter of learning, was chiefly instrumental in instituting the Grammar or High-School; which was originally intended to combine, with the public teaching of the learned languages, the study of logic and philosophy in private classes. The latter object was not accomplished: but the formation of this school seems to have revived the scheme of the University. Accordingly, in the following year, (1579,) the Magistrates, as the trustees and representatives of the community, notwithstanding the opposition which had been made by the other Universities, now wisely and zealously embraced the favourable opportunity which a change of political affairs afforded for effecting their object; and they soon afterward obtained from James a very ample charter, confirming and augmenting all the privileges which his mother had granted.*

In 1558, Reid, Bishop of Orkney, had bequeathed to the town of Edinburgh 8,000 merks, for the purpose of erecting an University: but, the money not having come into the hands of the magistrates till 1582, it was only in that year, when they had obtained complete authority by the royal warrant, that they could enter on the practical execution of their scheme;—and then such was their zeal that, by the month of October of the same year, they were prepared to open one of their class-rooms. They appear to have been singularly happy in their choice of a person to preside in their infant-institution.

> 'Mr. Rollock's fame,' says Mr. Bower, 'had gone before him; and the report that so celebrated a master was to begin a course of philosophy in the newly-founded University, operated as a charm, and induced a great number of students to repair thither to profit by his instructions. The impulse which thus was given to the youth of Scotland seems to have been very great indeed. For, according to his biographer and colleague, (who had the best opportunity of being informed,) multitudes from all corners of the kingdom flocked to Edinburgh to hear his lectures. *Turmatim ex omnibus regni angulis Edinburgum confluunt.*'

The course of study instituted by the first teachers of the University, and which continued to be observed for many years, is not undeserving of notice. The session or term commenced in the beginning of October, and appears to have lasted till the end of August; that is, the whole year was devoted to study, with the exception of one month's vacation. It was presumed that the students came perfectly prepared to enter on the perusal of the best Latin historians, orators, and poets; — a predominant attention being wisely given to Cicero. They were exercised in translating from the Latin into their vernacular tongue, and from it into Latin. Their performances were minutely examined; and, after a proper novitiate, the Principal prescribed a *common theme* on which they composed a commentary.

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* This charter constitutes the Lord Provost, Magistrates, and Town-Council of the city, patrons of the University in the largest sense, and empowers them to erect professorships and appoint professors as they may deem expedient. The Provost is *ex officio* Chancellor of the University, and the third magistrate for the year is Vice-Chancellor.

The next part of the course was the study of Greek. At the period in question, there does not appear to have been any Greek grammar printed in Scotland, and probably there was not a sufficient stock of Greek types in the country for the purpose. The grammar in most repute was that of Clenardus, which kept possession of the Scotish Universities until it was superseded by the work of Professor Dunlop of Glasgow about the beginning of the last century, and which has now given place to that of Dr. Moor. After the student had gone through the elements, with a portion of the Greek Testament, the first and second oration of Isocrates, Phocilides, the first book of Hesiod, and some books of Homer, were read.

Dialectics then formed the object of attention. The treatise preferred was that of the celebrated Peter Ramus, who first opposed the system of Aristotle at Paris, and who had been interdicted by Francis I. from teaching his work. At the same time, the students were exercised in translating from Greek into Latin, and conversely; the passages which had been read from the Greek authors were committed to memory; on Saturdays, they were engaged in disputation; and on the morning of Sundays they were examined in the catechism, which was a summary, in Latin, of the doctrines of the old Scotch Confession of Faith, subscribed in 1580 by the King and subsequently by the nation.

After a public examination on their Greek acquirements, the students proceeded to read the rhetoric of Talaeus; a short treatise in two books, in the first of which the author considers elocution or style, tropes, figures, &c. and, in the second, pronunciation. Their attention was next called to the Progymnasmata of Aphthenius, containing instructions for composing orations; and, in the actual construction of these exercises, the course of dialectics and rhetoric which had been previously taught was effectually practised.

Philosophy succeeded; and the Organon of Aristotle, with Porphyry's introduction, the books of the Categories, the Analytics, the first, second, and eighth of the Topics, and two of the Elenchi, were the text-books. — The science of Mathematics was neglected, but a compend of Arithmetic was taught.

In the third year, together with the farther perusal of Aristotle, the study of Hebrew was commenced; and, towards the conclusion of the session, the anatomy of the human body was taught: a branch of study which must have been entirely confined to mere verbal description, Edinburgh not having at that time any institution for dissections. The subject of lecture for Sunday mornings was now some common-place of divinity.

The attention of the fourth year was directed to what was called Physics. The books *De Caelo*, together with the Sphacra of John *Sacroboscus*, (Halifax,) were read: some theories of the planets were explained; and the more remarkable of the constellations were pointed out. The books *De Ortu*, *De Meteoris*, and *De Animâ*, succeeded; and the course concluded with the perusal of Hunter's Cosmographia, and lessons on Sundays in controversial Divinity. Previously to the students receiving a degree, they were first examined privately, and, if successful, they afterward publicly defended a thesis. The duties of the professors, also, were minutely regulated and carefully enforced; and the manner in which every hour of the day was to be spent, by teacher and scholar, was pointed out and enjoined.

In 1586, King James, who, however ridiculous and contemptible his weaknesses may have been, was a promoter of learning, conferred some of the confiscated church-lands on the University; and, though not a great donation, this was perhaps all that he could command, surrounded as he was by a factious nobility and a turbulent populace. The first *laureation*, which excited much interest, and had the countenance of all the nobility, lawyers, and divines of the city, consisted of 48 students; who, at the same time, were required to subscribe the celebrated national covenant, or bond of adherence to the Presbyterian establishment.

Soon after this date, the disputes began in Scotland on the subject of Church-government, which continued to rage with such bitter animosity for a very long and eventful period. James, from the time of his accession to the throne of England, had cherished the greatest anxiety to introduce episcopacy into his native country; and, in the General Assembly which met at Perth in 1618, five articles were proposed and adopted; viz. kneeling at the sacrament, the observance of five holidays, private baptism, the private administration of the sacrament, and confirmation. A great ferment was in consequence produced among all ranks of the people, who justly considered this proceeding as the commencement of the new system. Among others, Boyd, Principal of the University of Glasgow, and nearly related to the noble family of Kilmarnock, spoke openly against the Articles, and declared that he would not conform. He then repaired to Edinburgh, and was elected Principal in the room of Sands, who resigned. This appointment so greatly enraged the King, that he wrote a violent letter to the magistrates, threatening them with the weight of his utmost displeasure if they retained a Non-conformist to the Perth articles, and they were accordingly obliged to dismiss him. These factions, however, did not prevent the resort of students to the University, nor diminish the zeal and exertions of the patrons. New professors continued to be appointed for branches of science which were gradually disjoined from more general courses of study; and by this separation of objects, and division of labour, the prosperity of the institution was materially promoted. Meanwhile, the intolerant violence of the court towards the teachers remained unabated, and several fresh instances of deposition and even banishment occurred.

Such was the disturbed state of Scotland when Charles I. succeeded to the throne of these kingdoms. During his unfortunate reign, the policy which he pursued with regard to that country still farther incensed the nation, and gave rise to that association for the defence of its civil and religious rights which produced such mighty effects. Charles was too much occupied with political disputes to find time for patronising literature; and when, in 1633, he made a visit to Scotland, he paid no attention to the University of its capital.

During the period of the civil wars, of the Protectorate, and down to the Revolution, the University of Edinburgh, like other public seminaries, experienced equal violence from the successively predominating parties. Professors were appointed or expelled as the prevailing tyranny of the hour dictated; tests of opposite kinds were required from all the different members; and the interests of literature were thus, in the disgusting struggle for power, utterly contemned and nearly destroyed. 'In 1684 the privy council ordained, *That whosoever owned, or refused to disown, the declaration*[*], *on oath, should be put to death, in the presence of two witnesses, though unarmed when taken.* This excited the greatest terror and consternation throughout the whole country. The state of society had now become such that, in Edinburgh, attention to ordinary business was neglected, and every one was jealous of his neighbour.' (Vol. i. p. 307.)

From the contemplation of so disgusting a picture, we gladly turn to persons and circumstances of a calmer character, and of more happy influence on the interests of science and of mankind. The Revolution of 1688 occasioned the most auspicious changes in the management of the

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[*] Of adherence to the Presbyterian form of worship.

Scotish Universities; and, down to the end of the 17th century, (when the first volume of the work before us closes,) the University of Edinburgh in particular continued, in consequence of the liberal principles then introduced, steadily and progressively to improve in celebrity and usefulness. At this period, the number of professorships was ten, of which that of mathematics had been rendered particularly celebrated by the two Gregorys, James and David; the former being the inventor of the Gregorian telescope, the latter the author of the well known treatises on Optics and on Physical and Geometrical Astronomy; and both being the friends and correspondents of such men as Newton, Halley, and Wallis. We must also not omit to mention Maclaurin, the celebrated expounder of Newton, by whose recommendatory letter to the magistrates he had been preferred to the chair.

Having thus given a rapid abstract of the history of this University, from the period of its greatest difficulties until it attained the repose which is so necessary to literary prosperity, we have little room left to pursue the narrative farther. We will, however, take notice of two or three particulars. In 1703, Carstares, so well known for his collection of state-papers, was elected principal. He possessed a greater assemblage of talents than commonly falls to the lot of one person, and had ample scope for the exercise of them during the turbulent times in which he lived. He also enjoyed the entire confidence of King William; who, at his first interview with him when Prince of Orange, was struck with the acuteness, extensive views, and political information of his new acquaintance. He had been employed in confidential missions by the Prince, in the course of which he was apprehended, and twice put to the torture of the Thumbikens * at Edinburgh. Such was his influence in affairs both of the state and of the church, that he was called Cardinal Carstares.

From the encouragement which had been given to science by the principles introduced at the Revolution, the number of professorships was still more augmented; and, in particular, the foundation was laid of that celebrated school of medicine which has now long maintained a high reputation throughout Europe. Munro was among the first of the professors called to this chair; and the catalogue of eminent teachers, who successively filled it for more than half a century, may be regarded as no trivial indication of the honesty and

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* The Privy Council afterward presented him with this instrument of his torture.

penetration of the patrons. The Infirmary, an institution absolutely necessary to the completion of a medical school, was erected soon afterward; and we discharge a duty to society in recording that the family of Hopetoun were the principal contributors to this noble work of charity and science. The medical school was afterward still more improved by the separation of the professorships of the Theory and Practice of Medicine; and by the erection of two new chairs, those of Chemistry and Botany.

Mr. Bower has not carried his narrative lower down than 1760, although he intimates his intention of continuing it farther; and surely the period of Robertson, Fergusson, Blair, and Black, is not undeserving of attention.

On the whole, this performance bespeaks much laborious research; and though, from an apparent solicitude to give a faithful narrative, the author has detailed some events and proceedings that are now of little moment, it possesses value as an accurate record of an institution which stands high among national seminaries. The observations, also, which he has occasionally introduced on various plans of teaching and branches of science, are judicious and instructive, and indicate the diligence of his erudition. The book aspires not to the praise of elegance: and, besides occasional useless repetition, (as if the task had been resumed at long intervals, when the author had forgotten what he had already stated,) it is loaded with a common-place and too often inaccurate phraseology. Its merit is its fidelity, and its interest consists in pointing out some of the steps by which our northern neighbours have arrived at their reputation for learning: though this object, we must observe, might have been effected in a much less detailed and more connected narrative.

ART. XI. *The Lament of Tasso.* By Lord Byron. 8vo. pp. 19. 1s. 6d. Murray. 1817.

WHILE we were in the act of penning the advice to Lord Byron, which we ventured to offer when reviewing his Manfred in our last Number, it seems that his publisher was in some measure rendering that advice unavailing by printing another of his Lordship's works. It was even ushered to the world previously to the appearance of our critique; and, although our suggestions were given with perfect sincerity, we acknowlege that we are pleased that they have not been instrumental in preventing (of which, perhaps, there was little risk, even had they been in time,) the publication of the short poem now under our notice. We say this not only on account of the mere pleasure which we have received in reading this performance, but because we think that it strengthens the ground which we took in the commencement of our review, and because it contains something more than the "word of promise" towards an entire fulfilment of the prophecy at its conclusion. If Lord Byron continues to display such powers as he has exhibited in the 'Lament of Tasso,' — to divest his poetry of self or of its twin-shadow, — and still to write with energy, to excite our interest, and to command our sympathy, — all of which he has done here, — we shall indeed cease to 'associate with his muse all that is terrible, gloomy, and forbidding.'

Our readers are aware that Tasso was confined for seven years in the hospital of St. Anna, at Ferrara, by Alphonso II., the last Duke, who had some reason for supposing that his sister Leonora of Estè was the object of the poet's love. Lord Byron, whose works so generally follow the track of his travels, has lately visited the cell in which Tasso was confined for 'imputed madness;' and, identifying himself with the Italian bard, his Lordship has poured forth, in his name, this beautiful 'Lament.' In its pathos, which in this instance receives addition from the irregularity of the rhyme, its energy of thought, and its strength of expression, it is not surpassed by his former productions; and its wildness (for it has some portion of that quality) is so tempered, that the circle of pleasure is enlarged by including more to whom its beauties will be comprehensible.

Avoiding the particular mention of a few prosaic lines, and merely noticing, *en passant*, the anachronism of which the poet is guilty in making Tasso 'employ his penance' in the composition of the "*Gierusalemme Liberata*," which was published several years before, we shall give the following extract:

> 'I have been patient, let me be so yet;
> I had forgotten half I would forget,
> But it revives — Oh! would it were my lot
> To be forgetful as I am forgot! —
> Feel I not wroth with those who bade me dwell
> In this vast lazar-house of many woes?
> Where laughter is not mirth, nor thought the mind,
> Nor words a language, nor ev'n men mankind;
> Where cries reply to curses, shrieks to blows,
> And each is tortured in his separate hell —
> For we are crowded in our solitudes —
> Many, but each divided by the wall,
> Which echoes madness in her babbling moods; —
> While all can hear, none heed, his neighbour's call —
> None! save that one, the veriest wretch of all,

Who was not made to be the mate of these,
Nor bound between distraction and disease.
Feel I not wroth with those who placed me here?
Who have debased me in the minds of men,
Debarring me the usage of my own,
Blighting my life *in best of its career*,
Branding my thoughts as things to shun and fear?
Would I not pay them back these pangs again,
And teach them inward sorrow's stifled groan?
The struggle to be calm, and cold distress,
Which undermines our stoical success?
No! — still too proud to be vindictive — I
Have pardoned princes' insults, and would die.
Yes, sister of my Sovereign! for thy sake
I weed all bitterness *from out my breast*,
It hath no business where thou art a guest;
Thy brother hates — but I can not detest;
Thou pitiest not — but I can not forsake.'

An allusion is made in the eighth stanza to the spirit with whom Tasso believed that he had intercourse.—In our review of Manfred, we extracted a description of that character, beginning "From my youth up;" and, as a contrast with that passage, we shall conclude our present article with the picture of Tasso's early life, and the lines by which it is introduced:

'But thou art dearest still, and I should be
Fit for this cell, which wrongs me, but for *thee*.
The very love which locked me to my chain
Hath lightened half its weight; and for the rest,
Though heavy, lent me vigour to sustain,
And look to thee with undivided breast,
And foil the ingenuity of pain.

'It is no marvel — from my very birth
My soul was drunk with love, which did pervade
And mingle with whate'er I saw on earth;
Of objects all inanimate I made
Idols, and out of wild and lonely flowers,
And rocks, *whereby* they grew, a paradise,
Where I did lay me down within the shade,
Of waving trees, and dreamed uncounted hours,
Though I was chid for wandering; and the wise
Shook their white aged heads o'er me, and said
Of such materials wretched men were made,
And such a truant boy would end in woe;
And that the only lesson was a blow;
And then they smote me, and I did not weep,
But cursed them in my heart; and to my haunt
Returned and wept alone, and dreamed again
The visions which arise without a sleep.
And with my years my soul began to pant

With feelings of strange tumult and soft pain;
And the whole heart exhaled into one want,
But undefined and wandering, till the day
I found the thing I sought—and that was thee;
And then I lost my being all to be
Absorbed in thine—the world was past away—
Thou didst annihilate the earth to me!'

In our citations, we have marked in italics a few expressions that are objectionable, some on the score of that grammatical excision in which the poets of this day so frequently offend; and other examples might be given from this short poem; viz.

—— 'It tries the thrilling frame to bear
And eagle-spirit of a child of song.'—

'Not *for thou wert a Princess,* but that love
Had robed thee with a glory,' &c.

Art. XII. *An Elementary Treatise on Astronomy;* or an easy Introduction to a Knowledge of the Heavens; intended for the Use of those who are not much conversant in Mathematical Studies. By the Rev. A. Mylne, A.M., &c. 8vo. pp. 286. 9s. Boards. Baldwin and Co.

Of all the mathematical sciences, none is more interesting to an inquisitive mind than Astronomy; nor is there any with which it is more easy to acquire a general acquaintance. To pursue many of the investigations in physical astronomy, indeed, a profound knowlege of analysis is requisite: but the principles on which such computations are founded are readily comprehended; and, as to the practical part of the science, it involves very few calculations which are not performed with facility by those who have made a little progress in the elementary branches of mathematics, viz. arithmetic, geometry, and trigonometry. Nay, even a very correct idea of the arrangement, constitution, and economy of the solar system may be acquired without any previous mathematical knowlege: yet it is a very prevalent notion that such studies are above the comprehension of a common mind; and many persons are thus deterred from the pursuit of a course of reading which is calculated, perhaps, more than any other, to furnish a constant source of delightful reflection; to expand and dignify the mind; and to call forth our highest admiration of the goodness, power, and omniscience of the Deity. The present treatise is intended to obviate this unfounded prejudice; and, by furnishing an easy and concise elementary treatise of astronomy, to place the attainment of a knowlege

of many of the beautiful and interesting laws which g
the universe, within the reach of those who may not hav
foundly cultivated the more abstruse branches of the m
matical sciences. With this view, the chief object
author has been to train the student to a habit of exan
the heavens: and of making such remarks for him
will enable him to judge of the more accurate observati
others, and to perceive the practicability of arriving at
astonishing results which so frequently overwhelm an
found the untutored mind. As a knowlege of the fixe
must form the ground-work of all astronomical observ
Mr. M. has begun by directing the attention of his r
particularly to this subject.—In his preface, he very pr
observes:

> 'The usual method of acquiring the names and relative p
> of the constellations, by means of a celestial globe, is conf
> both awkward and embarrassing. The learner is obliged t
> ceive himself placed in the centre of the globe, and to
> completely the position of the stars, as delineated on its e
> surface. For example, the Little Dog, which in the hea
> seen on the left of Orion, appears, from inspecting the glob
> on the right of that constellation; and the Twins, which
> globe appear to the right of the Bull, are actually found to
> the left. This embarrassment is completely removed by t
> of the four Planispheres, or maps of the heavens, which
> pany this work, as on them the fixed stars are presented
> same form and position which they really occupy in the hea

The maps here mentioned we have examined with
attention, and have found them to be constructed wi
curacy: they are also very neatly executed; and th
certainly much better calculated for conveying a kn
of the names and positions of the constellations, tha
globe, whatever may be the accuracy of its constructi
the appendages with which it is encumbered.

Mr. Mylne has divided his work into three parts, an
of these into several chapters. Part 1. treats of the ap
motions and phænomena of the heavenly bodies; of t
and planets; of the moon; of eclipses; of the harve
horizontal moon; of the precession of the equinoxes;
inequality of the sun's motion; of the changes of the se
of the equation of time; of the formation of the calend
the atmosphere of the sun; of the zodiacal light; of th
planets Ceres, Pallas, Juno, and Vesta; of the libration
moon, &c. &c. Chapter 3. is wholly dedicated to the s
of comets; and chapter 4. to considerations of the fig
the earth, the principle of the construction of globe

maps, the latitude and longitude of places, geodetic operations, parallax, and refraction.

The second part treats of the real motions of the heavenly bodies; the different systems of the world, viz. the Ptolomaic, the Egyptian, the Tychonic, and the Copernican; the truth of the latter demonstrated by arguments in favour of the diurnal rotation of the earth, and its annual revolution round the sun; the magnitudes, distances, and periodic revolution of the planets; and a tabular view of the planetary system.

Part 3. gives a popular and concise view of the principles of physical astronomy; viz. the laws of Kepler; the theories before the time of Newton; the discoveries of this celebrated philosopher, and the law of gravitation; with the application of this law to the explanation of various phænomena; viz. the lunar inequalities, the disturbances of the planets, the figure of the planets, the precession of the equinoxes and the nutation of the earth's axis, the tides, and the attraction of mountains.

When we consider the variety of subjects that are thus introduced into the compass of a medium octavo volume, it necessarily follows that many of them are treated slightly: but they are given at sufficient length to excite interest in an inquiring mind; which is not only all that can be expected in a work of this nature, but, we imagine, is all that the author intended, and so far we think he has succeeded. We only regret that the style is not of a more pleasing kind. No scientific subject is better calculated, or gives greater scope, for a display of harmonious sentences than a popular view of astronomy: but we do not recollect that we ever saw less of this kind attempted; indeed, many of the expressions would not have passed unnoticed in familiar conversation, and much less can they be expected to escape censure in such a treatise on the science. This we conceive to be the greatest defect in the present performance.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR AUGUST, 1817.

POETRY, &c.

Art. 13. *The Persecutor:* with other Poems, from the Greek, Latin, Persian, Italian, and other Languages. 8vo. pp. 125. 6s. 6d. sewed. Longman and Co. 1816.

The *Persecutor* indeed! — but whom do our readers suppose the author has *persecuted* in this extraordinary, or, rather, this very ordinary poem? Let them guess, by the following sentence in the advertisement:

'As the early part of the persecutor's life is involved in doubt and obscurity, there was licence for imagination; and it is earnestly hoped, that the incidents introduced are not irreconcilable or unnatural to the character of the misguided and zealous subject of the first poem before his conversion.'

Will it be believed that St. Paul is here designated? We remark a freedom and a flippancy in this mode of speaking of the great Apostle of the Gentiles, which cannot be suffered to pass without reprehension; and when to the mention of the injudiciousness of the design is added the doggrel of the execution, we have only to make an extract or two to justify our censure, and to commit the 'Persecutor' to that oblivion which anxiously awaits it.

'*Venturous I sing.*— Oh! for thy gifted voice,
Great Priest of Heav'n! ——

'Immortal Milton! ——

'But vain th' aspiring wish.— A lower flight
My Muse, *mistrustful of her plume*, attempts.'

What a subject of regret it is that, when an author, just hovering over the abyss of publication, begins to doubt whether he be equal to Milton, he does not dare to proceed a little farther with his hesitation, and gradually advance to a feeling of uncertainty whether his poems be fit for publication? Alas! such progressive diffidence is not to be expected; and, consequently, time, talents of an useful though coarse description, better pursuits, and better prospects, are all thrown away, and another blot is fixed on the page of English literature. When, besides all this, good paper and print are so utterly wasted, what a combination of depressing reflections does it not arouse? Yet it is in vain to lament, and to reason;

—— "*tenet* insanabile *multos*
Scribendi cacoëthes, et ægro in corde senescit."

'Down glided Satan,'

drest in the 'reverend weeds of sage Gamaliel,' and conversed for a long hour with Paul. Among other subtle arguments, (for such, we are assured by the author, they are,) the "Old Serpent" suggested to him the following reasons, so poetically expressed, for opposing Christianity:

'I come, *sent by the Council and High Priest.*'—

'Yes it must mad thee, *that plain men*, who rode
In *fisher barks* upon the surging main,
Unskill'd, unletter'd, should convulse our state.'

Paul calls them, in reply, 'The pretending Twelve;'—'Those zealous servants of the Nazarene;'—and '*Mendicants*' is their frequent appellation. How barren, stale, flat, and unprofitable is this! Not a line conveys an old lesson in a novel or interesting shape; not a line sparkles with fancy, or affords amusement in the absence of instruction. We subjoin a few more *aukwardnesses*, and retire from this unworthy scene of criticism:

> 'Had Paul not yielded with *submiss* approach.'
>
> —— 'the newborn babe
> Was not more *flexile in its milky limbs.*'
>
> 'He *flounders onwards*, more and more astray.'
>
> 'Lay flat, hiding their faces.'

So much for 'the Persecutor.'

The ostentatious list of languages, which appears in the title-page, and from which the author professes to have made translations, did not give us any very sanguine expectation of his success in that department. This part of the work, however, is somewhat superior to the former; and, indeed, it is scarcely possible to follow in the track of the antients, or of the more classical moderns, and not sometimes to walk well and gracefully. The translations from Italian sonneteers seem to us the best in the volume: but still they deserve no particular notice; and some of the other versions, from Horace especially, are stiff and prosaic to the last degree. The author has tastelessly followed the example of Milton, in a blank-verse translation of a lyric ode, aiming also at an unattainable similarity of measure:

> 'Bandusian fountain! to thy glassy stream,
> Worthy of richest wine enwreath'd with flowers,
> To-morrow I devote
> A victim-kid, whose brow,
> Grac'd with young budding horn, shall wantoning butt,
> And destine wars in vain: for soon his life
> Shall shed a crimson flood,
> Staining thy gelid waves.'

The versions from Gray are laboured and unsuccessful.

Art. 14. *Macbeth*, a Poem, in Six Cantos. 12mo. pp. 224. 5s. 6d. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1817.

If our classical readers can imagine a Roman author possessed of so little judgment as to select for the subject of a poem, written after the Æneid of Virgil, the acts of Æneas during the Trojan war, they may then proceed to picture to their fancy the bad taste of the present publication. Here we have the Macbeth of Shakspeare *previous* to the events which form the basis of our great dramatist's high scene of imagination; — Macbeth conquering the Danes, in the dullest blank verse! This is enough, surely, for the plan of the work; and the execution of it will best be seen from a quotation or two, however brief, taken out of various parts of the volume. We begin with an extract from the description of the present state of the forest near Glammis, here barbarized into *Glamm's*, castle.

> 'Below whose shade the grazing heifer strays,
> *The nibbling sheep in white*, and gather'd flock,
> And youthful steed let loose from bridle-chain.'

If we are to suffer this mutilation of our language even
verse, where no apology on the score of the fetters of ver
can be pleaded, there will be no discoverable limit to the
corruption.

‘ Youthful steed let loose from bridle-chain’

is not English. If a foreigner had been taught the langua
is grammatically constituted, how would it be possible fo
understand it with this vulgar omission of the article,
meaning substitution of singular for plural nouns?

—— ‘ *With clenched fist*
He rising struck *amain* th’ unwary *Dane.*’
—— ‘ ’*Tis evident,*’ he said,
‘ That *th’ ev’ning* shades must fall, before the Dane
Can,’ &c.
‘ *Denudes his raven locks of helmet’s sheen* ;’,

that is, he takes off his helmet!

‘ And now, the sun, *scarce ris’n in the orient sky.*’
‘ On’s crimson sword he lean’d.’

The notes to the poem shew a portion of antiquarian k
and prove the writer to be fit for better things than scribb
verses.

Art. 15. *The House of Mourning*, a Poem. With some
Pieces. By John Scott. 8vo. pp. 75. 5s. 6d. sewed.
and Hessey. 1817.

We are at a loss how to speak properly of this strange
tion. *Strange*, indeed, we must call it; and wholly unl
sort of work which English feeling, we should have though
have wished to be presented to the general eye. A resic
Paris seems to have given a French turn to the sorrows
unhappy parent; though, by so saying, we are far from inte
convey the slightest reflection on the character of a gene
accomplished nation. All that we mean is that our
habits and manners render the poem before us a curious,
must add, a distressing spectacle to an Englishman. In
place, we think that it has no poetic merit that *could*
temptation sufficient to excuse the giving publicity to the
ness of grief, and so soon after the loss in question: but, s
it has in many passages a violent expression of anguish, w
really quite painful to witness. In a word, we can only b
selves to lament the violation in this instance of those
delicacy and reserve, which usually withdraw the sorrow
countrymen, when they are of so genuine and domestic a
from the observation of all witnesses but their family and

We could easily point out a string of prosaic passages,
familar and even coarse allusions, in this little poem,
forbear. At page 60., we have a note, alluding to a p
Genesis about the sons of God and the daughters of me
we have encountered in three other poems of this year.

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MEDICINE, SURGERY, AND CHEMISTRY.

Art. 16. *Practical Observations on the Cure of Wounds and Ulcers on the Legs, without Rest;* illustrated with Cases. By Thomas Whately, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons in London. Second Edition. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Callow. 1816.

The first edition of this work was published sixteen years ago, when we gave a brief account of its contents; and it does not appear that the doctrine which it inculcates has received any alteration during that period. Mr. W.'s great object is to recommend the use of compression in the cure of ulcers of the lower extremities; a practice which he conceives to be established by the most unequivocal evidence of facts, too numerous to admit of any doubt or uncertainty. He begins by some observations on the nature of wounds and ulcers, and on the power of the constitution in effecting their cure. If nothing peculiar or specific appears in their nature, that power generally proves sufficient for the purpose: but it is found that, when they occur on the legs, they are more difficult to treat than in most other parts of the body. This circumstance has been attributed to their depending situation, and to the languor of the circulation in them: but Mr. W. supposes that it is owing to the former of these causes only.

In the ordinary method of treatment, rest and the horizontal posture are strictly enjoined, and it is admitted that these measures promote and often accomplish the cure: but experience shews that relapses are frequent, and that the parts are apt to break out again when the patient resumes his usual occupations; while the confinement is often injurious to the constitution, and under certain circumstances is impossible. For this practice, then, Mr. Whately substitutes that of compression by means of bandages; by which the inconveniences attendant on the other plan are obviated, and the cure is rendered more speedy and more perfect.

This is the fundamental doctrine of the treatise, and we are disposed to regard it as extremely important: we feel great confidence in the author's correctness; and we are surprized that, his ideas having been given to the public for so many years, they have not made a deeper impression. We fully coincide with the following sentiment, extracted from the preface to the second edition:

> ' It would have been a great satisfaction to me, had this republication been rendered unnecessary, by the general adoption of a method of cure at once so simple, and so certainly effectual. But to those who have experienced its utility, it must appear a surprizing fact, that the contrary method of confining the patient to a horizontal position is still very generally followed, both in private practice and public institutions, notwithstanding this proves so frequently unsuccessful, and a recurrence of the disorder so generally follows, upon resuming the wonted exercise.'

Mr. Whately notices the plan recommended by Mr. Baynton, of applying straps of plaister to ulcerated legs, which accomplishes the same object of compression by a different process. On the comparative advantage of these two plans we have the ensuing remarks:

'However advantageous it may prove to use adhesive plaisters with a view of compressing ulcers situated in some parts of the body, I cannot conceive a case of ulceration in any part of the lower extremity, in which the compression may not be more advantageously obtained by the use of compresses, and the judicious application of a flannel-roller. Mr. Baynton himself recommends the roller in addition; the plaisters therefore appeared to me quite superfluous, nor have I ever found it necessary to have recourse to them. The roller and compresses are cheaper, more effectual, easier of application, less painful to the patient, free from offensive smell, and from any irritating quality on the sound skin, which in many constitutions will not bear the irritation occasioned by adhesive plaisters.'

The work is divided into several chapters, in which are discussed various questions incident to the subject, — the different kinds of wounds and ulcers, as connected with some peculiar or specific state of the constitution, — the different mode of management which is proper in recent and in old ulcers, — and other points, of an immediate practical tendency. Above 100 pages are occupied by a recital of cases, 167 in number, in which Mr. Whately's plan of treatment had been applied with success, and which afford a body of evidence in its support that seems to us to be irrefragable.

Art. 17. *An Answer to Dr. Kinglake;* shewing the Danger of his cooling Treatment of the Gout. By John Ring. 8vo. pp. 165. 5s. 6d. Boards. Callow. 1816.

Some years have now elapsed, since we had occasion to notice Dr. Kinglake's system of employing topical cold as a cure for gouty inflammation. We then stated our opinion that the plan, when pursued in the unqualified manner in which it was recommended by that gentleman, was decidedly objectionable; and we also remonstrated against the spirit in which his work was written, as exhibiting strong marks of arrogance, and betraying much ignorance respecting the history of medical science and the present state of practice. The volume now before us has revived in our minds a recollection of all these topics, which we had nearly forgotten, and which we conceive are as little remembered by the greatest part of the profession. However, as it appears that the cold treatment of gout is still practised by Dr. Kinglake, and has still some partisans, it may be desirable briefly to notice the subject once more.

We retain precisely the same sentiments concerning the question at issue which we formerly professed; we think that the last generation of practitioners were too much attached to the hot regimen, and that the suggestions of Heberden, Darwin, and others, materially contributed to throw light on the treatment of the disease: but, at present, we do not feel ourselves warranted in going beyond the limits which they have prescribed to us, and which consist rather in avoiding any additional heat than in applying actual cold.

The general opinion is clearly against Dr. Kinglake, as the controversial papers have proved which his publication has produced; and, in forming this conclusion, we are guided not merely by the number but by the respectability of his opponents. Still, although, so far as the nature of the argument is concerned, we coincide with Mr. Ring, we are sorry that we cannot agree with him in the means by which he enforces his doctrine; since his treatise, instead of being a temperate and scientific investigation of an interesting question in medical practice, consists of a tissue of declamation, generally violent and abusive, with frequent attempts at wit and pleasantry, which are frequently misplaced or abortive.

Art. 18. *A Treatise on the Atmosphere, and the Source of Solar Heat;* tending to prove, in Opposition to the Principles and Speculations of the Newtonian System, unconfirmed by Facts, the Non-existence of a Vacuum, and that the Sun receives from the Planets the Materials of Combustion. By an Oxonian. Small 8vo. pp. 64. 3s. 6d. Boards. Blacklock. 1816.

Whoever this Oxonian may be, his little work is written with considerable confidence and no small tendency to self-conceit; though, as is usual on such occasions, without any peculiar indication of ability or genius, to justify these lofty pretensions. With respect to the atmosphere, it is well known that a difficulty exists in accounting for some of the most common phænomena, and in comprehending the manner in which some of those appearances are produced that are of frequent occurrence. The author demurs to the opinion that 'the increased density of the atmosphere, on its approach to the earth, arises from its incumbent specific gravity,' and likewise that the space between the different heavenly bodies is a vacuum. As to the last supposition, the common objections are urged of meteors appearing at an elevation beyond that which is generally assigned to the air; and, instead of the former, the following doctrine is substituted, of the comparative probability of which our readers may judge:

'*This repulsive force of the air, coming in contact with the attraction of the earth, suffers its equilibrium, to a certain extent, to be destroyed, and the phenomenon of the atmosphere is produced.*'

In the second essay, the author offers some remarks concerning the nature of the sun. He thinks that it is absurd to suppose that this luminary can consist of solid ponderous matter, and conceives it more probable that '*the sun, being a globe or volume of elementary fire, by the connecting force of attraction is retained in its situation, and preserves the planets in theirs;*' a position which he supports by this train of argument:

'That it (the sun) is so much lighter than air, as to effect this, is not difficult to prove: for air, deprived of its elasticity, is a very dense body; *heat* is the principle of this elasticity; therefore, it must be as much lighter in proportion to air, nay, more so than what air is to the densest of bodies; or, as heat cannot be ascertained to have any weight, we have a right to conclude that it has none; therefore it must be lighter, in proportion to those bodies, that have weight, nay more so than they are to the weightiest. Consequently, *the sun and the planets are specifically lighter than the medium in which they float.*'

Art. 19. *A practical Treatise on the Diseases of the Foot of the Horse;* containing a correct Description of their Nature, Causes, and Methods of Prevention; with Suggestions of improved Plans of Treatment, founded in physiological Principles. Also rules of Shoeing, by which the ordinary Evils attending this Process may be in some Measure prevented. Dedicated, by Permission, to Sampson Hanbury, Esq. By R. H. Budd, Veterinary Surgeon. 8vo. pp. 224. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1816.

Although we do not profess to know much respecting the veterinary art, yet we have read this work with considerable satisfaction, because it bears on the face of it an air of good sense, which strongly impresses us with the idea of its correctness. No one can doubt the importance of the subject; among the diseases of the horse none are so frequent as those of the feet; and, whatever other perfection the animal may possess, it is obvious that, when this part is affected, every thing else is of no avail. Mr. Budd remarks that not only is the foot the most frequent seat of disease, but that very peculiar attention is necessary in order to understand the maladies and treatment of this part; because, while the other diseases of the horse have a degree of analogy with certain affections in the human body, 'the foot of the horse has no resemblance to any part of the human subject, and consequently its treatment under disease must be governed by considerations which are peculiar to it.'

After an anatomical description of the horse's foot, with some physiological remarks on the structure and composition of its various parts, we proceed to an account of its diseases, considered in succession, each forming the subject of a separate chapter. They are as follow: sandcracks, corns, thrush, ringbone, quittor, contraction, and founder. On the subject of contraction, after having described the various false notions that have prevailed on this point, and the erroneous and even injurious practices to which they have given rise, the author offers various considerations in proof of what is now admitted to be the real and sole cause, the application of the shoe. This cause was first distinctly brought into view by Mr. Bracy Clark, to whom Mr. Budd acknowleges his obligation; and who seems to have been almost the first writer who entertained a correct opinion of the form and structure of the horse's foot in its natural state, before it had been mis-shapen by the application of the shoe. By this substance, which is to be regarded in the light of an 'inflexible iron ring,' firmly attached to a soft, elastic, and growing part, the process of nature is completely counteracted; and a new action is established in the foot, by which its several members become displaced, cemented together, and even in part removed by absorption. All this evil is ascribable to metallic shoes of any form or construction; for, as the author remarks, 'It does not oppear that the animal or vegetable kingdom affords a substance which, if nailed to the bottom of the foot, will at once yield to its action and afford it a sufficient protection, and, without these combined, we must be content to follow our old plan, and bear with evils which we cannot remove.'

Mr. Budd points out, in a very forcible and convincing manner, the insufficiency, or even the mischievous effects, of many of the contrivances that have been adopted to remedy this important evil, and suggests the following as the only means of alleviating it which we possess.

'Though no plan with which we are yet acquainted is capable of preventing contraction, or of removing it, there is one caution which we have already had occasion to mention, the observance of which will materially retard its progress, or even prevent its occurrence beyond a certain extent. We allude to the distance which the nails are driven from the posterior extremity of the quarters. Upon the degree of attention paid to this rule depends, as far as we have been able to judge, the chief difference between good and bad shoeing, setting aside the more trivial circumstances of the weight of the shoe, its adaptation to the foot, &c. That contraction of the more anterior parts of the quarters will ever be produced by the iron shoe seems obvious, but it is to be recollected that such cannot go on longer, except very slowly, than the hoof is brought to compress pretty firmly the coffin-bone; for after this period its progress will be scarcely perceptible on external observation of the foot, though it certainly does not entirely cease. After it has arrived at this state, then, no part but the posterior extremity of the quarter will continue its alteration; let but the nails be driven sufficiently distant, however, and even this will cease; and though the action of the quarters is almost entirely destroyed by the first use of the shoe, still we shall be enabled to prevent that excessive contraction which is in the end productive of lameness, and a condemnation of the animal to a change of masters, with its attending consequences, cruelty and ill treatment; the observation of such a rule is therefore not only as regards our interest, but, in a moral point of view, of the utmost importance.'

On the whole, we think that we are justified in strongly recommending the perusal of this treatise to all those who are concerned in the management of the useful, noble, and often suffering animal, on the diseases of which it treats.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 20. *The Agency of Divine Providence,* manifested in the principal Transactions, Religious and Political, connected with the History of Great Britain from the Reformation to the Revolution in 1688. By Samuel O'Sullivan. 8vo. pp. 221. Dublin. 1816.

Every believer in Divine Providence will admit that, as the history of the world exhibits the developement of that wise and benevolent plan according to which its affairs are arranged, it is a service rendered to the cause of virtue and piety to point out the marks of superintending design in the events of history. In applying the general doctrine of Providence, however, to particular cases, we are exposed to error from various causes; and the task is not one which we should have recommended to a youthful writer, such as Mr. O'Sullivan declares himself to be. Remarkable single events, which are considered as interpositions of Providence, are interpreted according to the interests and prejudices of individuals. On the road from Mecca to Medina, Mohammed was overtaken by the emissaries of the Koreish, and redeemed himself with prayers and promises from their hands. "In this eventful moment," says Gibbon, "the lance of an Arab might have changed the history of the world;" and no doubt the followers of the prophet regard his escape as a proof of the Divine origin of Islamism. If the Whig, also, sees a Divine interposition in the wind which kept James's fleet in port while the Prince of Orange landed his troops in safety, the supporter of the *jus divinum* may urge the miraculous escapes of the Chevalier after the battle of Culloden as a proof that heaven watched over his sacred person. Even in considering long periods of history, in which the tendencies of events are more distinctly marked, we are very liable to be misled, by contemplating the state of things in our own times as a sort of consummation of the divine plans; and regarding that as good in itself, which is in fact an imperfection preparatory to some yet unforeseen improvement. How many events must we now pronounce to have been, comparatively speaking, evil, which were regarded by contemporaries as of the most beneficial tendency; and what opposite judgments should we hear of the events of our own times, in passing from one country, political party, or religious sect, to another! Mr. O'Sullivan considers it as a mark of Divine Providence that the arbitrary temper of Henry VIII., and his leaning towards popery, produced a moderate reformation of the church, and preserved to us a *hierarchy uninterrupted in its descent from the apostles!!* but the Catholic, we think, with at least equal reason, considers it as a proof of falsehood in a system that it owed its peculiarities to the blind passions of a lascivious despot The true proof of the superintendence of Providence over the affairs of men is to be found, not in particular events or series of events so much as in those general principles of human nature, from the operation of which the progressive advancement of knowlege and virtue results. In the same way we should chuse to argue the moral government of God, as it concerns individuals, not from what are vulgarly called *judgments* and *providences,* but from the laws of our physical and moral constitution, which necessarily connect vice with misery and virtue with happiness.

Mr. O'S. has taken the history of England from the Reformation to the Revolution, in order to illustrate the agency of Providence; and he points out, as he proceeds, the influence of each event in producing the general result. The following extract from his summing up of the argument affords a favourable specimen of the spirit and composition of his work.

'The reader has now before him a brief summary of those events, in the order and economy of which I propose to trace the outline of a system of providential government. It is for him to judge whether this sufficiently appears in the circumstances which attended the rise, the progress, and the establishment of the principles on which are founded our present systems of religion and liberty. I would ask him, whether he conceives that the most profound and sagacious legislator could contrive to cherish these principles in their beginnings, to assist them in their more advanced state, and to confirm them in their maturity, more effectually by the most far sighted policy, than has been done by the events which have arisen out of the virtues, the vices, and the follies of individuals, the passions and prejudices of the multitude, and the capricious and fluctuating policy of statesmen, who were guided by the most opposite views and interests for the space of nearly 200 years; whether to that chaos which first strikes the eye, on a cursory review of these events, a surprizing order and regularity does not succeed on a mature consideration; and whether the characters which have been actuated by the most hostile views, and set in the most direct opposition to each other, have not, nevertheless, been all operating to one great end, with the unconscious and undeviating sagacity of instinct. Not only does this fitness appear in the conduct of the moral agents concerned in this scheme, but the accidents of nature are made to assist in forwarding the same object; and sudden deaths, heavy rains, storms, and shipwrecks, often take place at a time when such events were critically necessary either to secure the advances already made, by the principles of religion and liberty, or to facilitate their farther progress. The conclusion which I would draw from all this is obvious. It is surely unphilosophical to attribute such harmony of design; such beauty of contrivance; such a wonderful adaptation of means to ends; such an appropriate assignation of his place to each, amid such a variety of agents; such a piece of moral and political mechanism, operating for such important purposes, and during such a length of time, to chance.'

The author's style is not wholly free from national peculiarities. Miss Edgeworth's story of the Limerick-gloves might have taught him that it behoves lovers and authors to speak of what they *hope*, and not what they *expect*, (p. 21.) from their mistresses and their readers.

Art. 21. *Sermons on the Epistles or Gospels*, for the Sundays throughout the Year, (including Christmas-day and Good-Friday,) for the Use of Families and Country Congregations. By the Rev. R. Warner, Curate of St. James's Parish, Bath. 2 Vols. 12mo. 16s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1816.

We have perused these discourses with much satisfaction, and are happy to be able to give a favourable report of them. The collection consists of fifty-two sermons, adapted to every Sunday throughout the year, the text of each being invariably take some portion of the Epistle or Gospel belonging to the day, down in the book of Common Prayer used in our Establi The language of the author is plain and unaffected; rising to the pitch of lofty and commanding eloquen rarely, if ever, sinking below the proper dignity of pulpit-The doctrines inculcated are supported with force and spi arguments, on which they rest, do not fail in their effect fr want of closeness of reasoning and perspicuity of illustratio plain and practical truths are sent home (if we may so sp the feelings and the consciences of every class of persons sermons, however, will not always be found particularly priate to the days to which they are assigned: as, for in that which is intended for Trinity-Sunday treats of regene and that which is allotted to Good Friday does not treat atonement by the death of Christ, but of the necessity and of receiving the sacrament. We do not mean to find fa either of these subjects, as affording unfit materials for the but, if sermons are avowedly assigned to specific days, it expected that the obvious and accustomed topics on such da not be superseded. The necessity of practical virtue, as th structure to be raised on the foundation of faith in the me Redeemer, and the equal necessity of such a faith in order a value to any human endeavours, appear to be the doctrines which Mr. W. has attempted to inculcate. minister of the Church of England, he is naturally attache Establishment to which he belongs; and he is perfectly enforcing the doctrines of that church with all the ab which he is master, as far as this may be consistent with a degree of liberality towards the feelings and opinions of ot

At the beginning of the first volume is a prefatory dis in which the author has ably advocated the cause of his labourers in the vineyard; defending them from the charg alting reason above faith and learning above piety, and of pr moral essays but not the religion of Christ.

MATHEMATICS, MECHANICS, &c.

Art. 22. *A Treatise on Mills*, in Four Parts. Part F circular Motion. Part Second, on the Maximum of Bodies, Machines, Engines, &c. Part Third, on the of effluent Water. Part Fourth, Experiments on Motion, Water-Wheels, &c. By John Banks, Lect experimental Philosophy. Second Edition. 8vo. . Boards. Longman and Co.

As stated in the title, this work is divided into four pa first relating to circular motion; the second to the maxi moving bodies, machines, engines, &c.: the third, to the of effluent water; and the fourth details various experim circular motion, water-wheels, &c. &c. We conceive t latter portion will be most esteemed by the generality of the investigations in the preceding parts being of that i

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diate nature which will neither suit the mathematical mechanic nor the mere practitioner; as they are too loose, and we may add too inaccurate, for the former, and too abstruse for the latter.

In the very commencement of the first part, we were struck with some singular assumptions; such as taking the chord of an arc to represent the projectile velocity of a body revolving in a circle, while the versed sine of the same arc is made to denote the centrifugal force; — and again, in article 3. the space passed by a body in any time, p, is called its velocity, or at least it is employed as such; for T being the periodic time, or time of a revolution in seconds, p the time of describing a certain arc, D the diameter of the circle, and $q = 3.1416$, we have in the article above mentioned

$$T : Dq :: p : \frac{Dqp}{T} = V,$$

which is only true when $p = 1$: but, as this supposition is afterward made, all the deductions succeeding that part of the investigation are correct, while those which precede it are false; or at least unsatisfactory.

As another example of this kind of inaccuracy, we shall copy problem 2. of the second part; viz.

'Let w and x be two bodies connected by a cord; w hanging perpendicular, x supported by the inclined plane; required the accelerating force, and the ratio of x to w, when the effect is the greatest?

Put $1 =$ radius.
$s =$ sine of the angle of elevation.

'Then, as the radius (1) is to (s) the sine of the angle of elevation, so is x to sx, the force with which the weight x endeavours to descend down the plane.

'And as the sum of their forces is to the difference, so is the force of gravity to the accelerating force.

'Viz. As $w + sx : w - sx :: 1$ (the force of gravity) : $\frac{w-sx}{w+sx}$: the space passed over in a given time, compared with gravity, or with the space pased over by a falling body.

'The greatest effect of w will be when the momentum of x is a maximum, which will be had by multiplying the velocity by the quantity.

'Viz. $\frac{w - sx}{w + sx} \times x =$ maximum.

'Or, $\frac{wx - sx^2}{w + sx} =$ the momentum, and must be a maximum by the question; in fluxions

$\overline{w\dot{x} - 2sx\dot{x}} \times \overline{w + sx} - s\dot{x} \times \overline{wx - sx^2} = o$, from which we get $s^2 x^2 + 2swx = w^2$; by completing the square, and extracting the root, we have $x = \frac{w}{s}\sqrt{2} - \frac{w}{s}$.'

That the accelerating force is here falsely assumed is manifest from taking the case of the angle of the plane being equal to zero; in which case, $s = o$, and consequently $\frac{w - sx}{w + sx} = \frac{w}{w} = 1$; viz. the accelerating force is the same as if there were no second body x, which is obviously erroneous.

Many other instances of this kind occur in various problems, which render the investigations of little value: but the experiments may be made useful, and therefore deserve the attention of engineers.

Art. 23. *An Introduction to the Method of Increments*, expressed by a new Form of Notation; shewing more intimately its Relation to the Fluxional Analysis. By Peter Nicholson. 8vo. pp. 130. Davis and Dickson. 1817.

The method of increments, as well as the method of fluxions, is a native of our own soil: but, like the latter, it has been neglected by Englishmen. Both have been transplanted into foreign countries, and cultivated with peculiar care and perseverance; which have again been amply rewarded by a rich harvest of important scientific discoveries. Montucla observes that, had the human mind always pursued the path which appears the most natural, the theory of increments would have preceded that of fluxions; because it seems much more direct to be carried from the consideration of finite differences to that of differences indefinitely small, than to pass from the latter to the former. Such, however, was the fact; the first distinct notion of the doctrine of increments not appearing till the year 1715, in a work intitled "*Methodus Incrementorum*," by Dr. Brooke Taylor; and the only other English writer on the subject being Emerson, who published his "Method of Increments," in 1763. More than a century has therefore passed, since the first discovery of this most important branch of analysis, without any attempt (except the solitary one above mentioned) being made by an English mathematician to promote and cultivate a discovery that does honour to our country. The subject, however, has not been neglected: but, on the contrary, as we have above observed, it has been pursued with the utmost assiduity by our continental neighbours, and *Taylor's Theorem* is "as familiar in their mouths as household words;" while nine-tenths of our English students are scarcely acquainted even with the signification of the expression, much less with any method of investigating its principles, or with its extensive application.

Mr. Nicholson's Introduction may be of some utility, by bringing the subject before a certain class of readers, who might otherwise remain quite ignorant of this doctrine: but we doubt whether it be well calculated to inspire them with any desire for persevering in their studies, by exhibiting the beauties and simplicity of its principles, and pointing out the road to more profound and interesting researches.

To have written, with any prospect of success, on the theory of increments, would have required a more extensive acquaintance with the works of modern foreign authors than Mr. N. appears to possess; for this is not one of those subjects that can be studied, comprehended, and illustrated by the same person and at the same time. Yet such appears to have been the attempt in the present instance, as will be seen by the following abstract from the author's preface; from which our readers will be able to appreciate both his style of writing (which is far from being of the most correct kind) and his qualifications for treating on one of the most abstruse branches of analysis.

'Having by ardent desire, in early youth, acquired a knowledge of most of the Mathematical Sciences, by application to books, principally from the works of that celebrated mathematician, Mr. Emerson, but, from the want of similar society at that time, and a desire of applying the scientific knowledge I then possessed to useful purposes, I directed my attention to Architecture; and what I have done in this art will sufficiently appear in the works that have been published under my name.

'After an interval of twenty-five years, about two years ago, my attachment was again renewed to the scientific parts of mathematical knowledge; and being desirous of understanding the method of increments, (fluxions having been an early acquirement,) I directed my attention thereto, and the following Work is a part of the result.

'When I first went upon the study, it was not with a view of publication, but with a desire of obtaining a knowledge of the summation of series by this method; but, having, by the doctrine of combinations, discovered the decomposition of powers, or their resolution into progressions, and progressions into powers, and also the same for their reciprocals, I became anxious of writing on the subject, and more particularly so, knowing that it would create a greater interest in the study.

'But, in proceeding with the Work, improvements so often occurred, that I was frequently obliged to re-write many of the articles, such as were not printed off, till satisfied; and this will account for the want of uniformity that is to be found in the subsequent pages.

'As an introduction was only at first intended, the Work will, perhaps, agree with the title, the higher branches of the method of Increments not being treated upon; though the principles delivered are capable of a much more extensive application.'

It will be evident, from this extract, that the author was too much in haste in committing his labours to the press; and the volume itself shews this fact in a much clearer point of view, by the changes of principles and changes of notation which occur in many of its pages. Indeed, we have little doubt that Mr. N. himself would be glad of an opportunity of retracing his own steps, and of giving to the whole a more uniform dress than that in which it at present appears.

The notation adopted at page 54. is ingenious, but it ought to have been employed throughout the work: the introduction, also, on the decomposition of powers, displays an originality of thinking:

ing: but, like the other parts, we suspect that it was committed to the press before it had been completely investigated and developed. We know not whether we may expect to see a second edition: but, if this should be the case, we have little doubt of finding the book much improved.

NATURAL HISTORY.

Art. 24. *Elements of Conchology*, according to the Linnæan System; illustrated by Twenty-eight Plates, drawn from Nature, by the Rev. E. J. Burrow, A.M. F.L.S. Mem. Geol. Soc. 8vo. pp. 263. 16s. Boards. R. and A. Taylor. 1815.

Art. 25. *The Elements of Conchology;* or Natural History of Shells: according to the Linnæan System. With Observations on modern Arrangements. By Thomas Brown, Esq. Captain Forfar Regt., Fellow of the Linnæan Society, Member of the Wernerian Natural History Society, &c. Illustrated with Nine coloured Engravings. 8vo. pp. 174. Sewed. Lackington and Co. 1816.

Of these two publications, the first bespeaks much familiar conversancy with the subject, united with scholar-like precision and elegance of style, critical ingenuity, and appropriation of remark. The introduction, which slightly touches on some of the general topics of testaceology, is followed by a series of neat explanations of the technical terms; and the generic and specific descriptions are then successively unfolded, in a very masterly manner, and with due references to the plates. A list of English trivial names is also subjoined, for the accommodation of purchasers and collectors of shells. We are next presented with a well arranged catalogue of writers on conchology, principally extracted from a paper in the viith vol. of the Linnæan Transactions, by Dr. Maton and the Rev. Mr. Rackett; and, lastly, with a short table of colours, in which the author endeavours to express the Latin terms by corresponding English epithets.

Of the plates, it is observed 'that they are all, without any exception, drawn from nature, and as accurately as an uninstructed hand could, with much care, accomplish. They are intended to illustrate the *forms* of every natural subdivision of each genus, and will admit of being coloured by the student in conchology, from other specimens, either as an embellishment, or as a very beneficial exercise towards acquiring a more intimate knowledge of this peculiar science. A few drawings have been added, with a view to exemplify the different stages of growth in shells; to point out a few among many species of doubtful genus; and to offer to the curious conchologist such rare or non-descript shells as have recently come under the observation of collectors.'

Mr. Burrow has taken pains not only to trace most of the generic names to their origin, but to sprinkle the systematic portions of his composition with various observations; which agreeably relieve the monotony of abridged definitions and descriptions, and impart an interest and an air of originality to the whole performance.

Captain Brown has executed a similar task, with more regard to neatness than to correctness of typography. To his copious list of *errata*, we might easily add at least an equal number, besides such ungrammatical expressions as 'many genera *constitutes*,'—'bivalve shell *are* united,'—'the hinges of all the *Arca*,'—'that fine saw-like edge which *unite*,'—'the colours also are of service, &c. though *it* cannot always be depended on,'—'the exterior surface *are* covered,'—'which it can *oblique*,' &c. &c.—We are told that 'the author was induced to undertake this simple work, because there was no elementary book on shells in the English language, with the exception of Da Casta's, [Costa's,] whose arrangement is now generally exploded.' From this unqualified assertion, we may infer that the author was ignorant of the treatise to which we have just adverted.—The adoption of method and nomenclature has doubtless accomplished much: but, when Captain Brown broadly affirms that 'every object can be traced with certainty and facility to its proper place in the *System of Nature*,' we can, *with certainty and facility, trace* the sentiment, and even the language, to Stewart's Elements of Natural History. Such an unlimited position, however, obviously involves an inference to which no sober-minded naturalist will feel disposed to subscribe; namely, that artificial arrangments of natural objects have attained to practical perfection. It is, likewise, completely at variance with the humiliating reflection which occurs in a subsequent passage of the work before us. 'Most shells,' says the writer, 'are very different in their young and adult state, both in form and colour; the student ought, therefore, to make himself well acquainted with the generic characters, to enable him to discriminate the difference. But, indeed, this is *often a difficult matter, even to those who have studied the science for many years*.' The same remark, we apprehend, forcibly applies to all the other departments of animated nature.—The Captain's catalogue of testaceological writers is somewhat meagre; and his explanations of the parts of shells, and of the scientific terms employed in conchology, might have been more conveniently incorporated in one division, than separated by the interjected definitions of the genera and species.

With the above exceptions, however, these Elements of Conchology will be found to exhibit a sufficiently accurate and perspicuous outline of the Linnéan system of a limited, but interesting, department of zoology. The author's explanations, especially when exemplified by figures, are particularly distinct and satisfactory; and his practical hints, which chiefly relate to the use of the instrument called the *spoon*, in gathering shells, and to the most approved methods of cleaning them, though compressed within the compass of a very few pages, will not be overlooked by collectors.

Captain Brown's directions for detecting the tricks of dealers, repairing deformities in shells, &c. will also be found of considerable service; and the rather because these particulars are seldom introduced into elementary manuals.—The plates are handsome delineations of the explanatory details of the text.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 26. *Time's Telescope for* 1817; or a complete Guide to the Almanack; containing an Explanation of Saints' Days and Holy Days; with Illustrations of British History, &c.; Antiquities; Notices of obsolete Rites and Customs; and Sketches of comparative Chronology, astronomical Occurrences, &c. To which is prefixed an Introduction, containing the Principles of Zoology. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Sherwood and Co.

We have already (see Vol. lxxxi. M. R.) noticed the preceding volume of this amusing and instructive performance; and we have now little to add to, or to deduct from, the encomiums which we deemed it our duty to pass on the contents of that part: the plan being still the same, and the execution and arrangement as nearly as possible on the same model. One of the most marked distinctions between the two volumes is the substitution of an introduction to the Principles of Zoology for the former introduction to Botany; while the theory of Astronomy also here takes the place of the preceding Historical Sketches, and is still divided under the heads of the several months in the same manner as before, to which arrangement we offered some objections in our former notice.

We shall not consider it as requisite for us to continue our report of this annual publication.

Art. 27. *Metrology;* or an Exposition of Weights and Measures, chiefly those of Great Britain and France; comprizing Tables of Comparison, and Views of various Standards; with an Account of Laws and Local Customs, parliamentary Reports, and other important Documents. By P. Kelly, LL.D. Master of the Finsbury-square Academy, London. 8vo. pp. 154. Lackington and Co. 1816.

Our readers are already acquainted (M. R. Vol. lxvi.) with a work of some magnitude by Dr. Kelly on the subject of Commercial Exchanges, and we now introduce to their notice a small performance on a topic connected with the same species of inquiry. Dr. K. begins with observations on the standards afforded us by nature, such as the length of a pendulum in different latitudes, the length of different degrees of the meridian, the uniformity of the diurnal rotation of the earth, &c.: whence he proceeds to an account of the measurement of a meridian line in France, and to an explanation of the new system of weights and measures established in that country in 1795, which he subsequently compares with the weights and measures of England. We have next a statement of the Report of a Committee of the House of Commons on our weights and measures in 1758, and an abstract of our statutes on that subject for several centuries back. After an account of the weights and measures of Scotland and Ireland, the book concludes with a copy of the Report of the Committee of the House of Commons made so lately as 1814, and with the outline of the bill which passed the Commons in the last year, but was afterward lost in the Upper House. — The work is evidently intended for nothing beyond an elementary treatise, and seems sufficiently likely to answer that purpose, as it brings together several of the most useful statements published on the subject.

Art. 28. *A Treatise on Profits, Discounts, and Interest;* explaining how to compute the gross Amount of any net Sum to secure a certain net Profit, after a Discount has been allowed therefrom; and to compute, by short Rules, Interest of Money; with many Tables. By John Lowe, Birmingham. 8vo. pp. 160. 12s. 6d. Boards. Walker. 1816.

Mr. L. is a stationer in Birmingham, and perhaps calculates that to enroll himself among the fraternity of authors will be an effectual method of raising his own repute in the eyes of his customers, as well as of giving additional briskness to the *debit* of his atlases, globes, ledgers, day-books, &c. We shall not dispute the effect of the experiment in a mercantile point of view: but Mr. L. must pardon us if we do not exactly join in the general approbation which he seems to expect, or in giving him credit for the patriotism of the motives stated in his preface as stimulating him to the publication in question. His interest-tables are sufficiently convenient, and will be found to supply the wants of those who do not require a more extended statement: but his discount-tables are unnecessarily multiplied, being carried, in certain cases, to allowances (40, 45, 47½ and even 50 per cent.) which ought not to have and cannot have existence in any well regulated community. Occasionally we find (as in p. 12.) an useful observation in aid of arithmetical operations: but the general character of the tract is want of simplicity, with a needless accumulation of rules and examples.

Art. 29. *A Treatise on the Breeding, Training, and Management of Horses,* with practical Remarks and Observations on Farriery, &c. To which is prefixed, the Natural History of Horses in general, and the Antiquity of Hore-racing in England: together with an Appendix, containing the whole Law relating to Horses. By W. Flint, an old Sportsman, well known on the Turf and in the Chase. 12mo. pp. 144. Longman and Co.

We are so little acquainted either with the turf or the chase, that we are not able to speak with much confidence respecting Mr. Flint's merits; and our difficulty is increased by a kind of mysticism which pervades the subject, and which makes the terms in a great degree unintelligible: thus presenting to the uninitiated a barrier which it is almost impossible to surmount. As a specimen of the manner of the author, we quote a passage from the chapter on 'Faults and Defects.'

'A horse's shoulder should not be loaded; if he has a heavy shoulder, he can never move well; and a very thin shoulder, with narrow breast or chest, though he will have good action, is generally weak and more liable to be shook in those parts: a narrow chested horse turns his toes out, crosses his legs, and frequently cuts; by his unsteady motion he is as liable to stumble as a thick shouldered one, though not so liable to fall. If a horse is lame forward, it is generally said to be in the shoulder; but in my opinion,

nion, he is less liable to be lame there than any other part. Always examine the coffin-joint and feet: but horses are more subject to be lame in their hinder limbs. The most certain rule to discover disease or lameness in the shoulder, is the motion of the fore arm. A horse may be hurt on the withers, at the point of the shoulders, or really shook in his shoulders; swim him frequently in very deep water; afterwards keep rowels in him to prevent humours from fixing, and turn him out, as rest is most essential for his cure.

'The principal colours of horses are the black, the brown, the bay, the chesnut, the grey, the roan, and the cream colour. Not any one can judge their perfections by colour; the choice is governed by the eye without any rule; for it is a very true saying, A good horse cannot be of a bad colour, though I think dark bays and browns with black muzzles, legs, and feet, are certainly the most hardy. White legs and feet are a great denial.'

In the above paragraph, our readers will perceive that certain peculiarity of expression which, we suppose, belongs to the *equine science*, and is deemed essential to it: but we have a chapter towards the conclusion, in which Mr. Flint, inspired by his subject, becomes quite poetical, and launches out into what will perhaps pass under the denomination of fine writing. It relates to the hydrophobia, and thus commences: 'When Sirius reigns, and the sun's parching beams bake the gaping surface,' &c. &c. If this be very fine, we fear that it is not very correct; because it is now generally agreed by the sober *prose* writers on this subject, that Sirius has very little to do with the matter.

CORRESPONDENCE.

From some accidental circumstances, we are obliged to postpone an answer to our fair Correspondent who dates from a Royal village in Surrey; and, to say the truth, we do not perfectly comprehend the import of the intimation with which she concludes.

The anonymous letter respecting a novel, probably coming from the author himself, does not appear to require any particular notice.

⁂ The APPENDIX to this Volume of the Review will be published with the Number for September, on the First of October.

☞ In the last Number, p. 227. l. 10. from bott. for 'those' read *that*.

THE
APPENDIX
TO THE
EIGHTY-THIRD VOLUME
OF THE
MONTHLY REVIEW
ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

Art. I. *Histoire de la Philosophie Moderne*, &c.; *i. e.* A History of Modern Philosophy, from the Revival of Letters down to the System of *Kant*; preceded by an Abridgment of antient Philosophy, from the time of Thales to the Fourteenth Century. By John Gottlieb Buhle, Professor of Philosophy at Göttingen. Translated from the German by *A. J.L. Jourdan*, Knight of the Order of Réunion. 8vo. Six Vols. About 720 pp. in each. Paris. 1816. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 3l. 3s.

The Germans have written much on the history of philosophy. *Brucker*, in his *Institutions*, and *Faber*, in his *Treasury of Scholastic Erudition*, have provided the learned of Europe with Latin books of reference in this line of reading; and in our twentieth volume, N. S. p. 573., and twenty-fourth volume, p. 521., we gave some account of a vernacular work of great merit by *Tiedemann*, intitled *The Spirit of Speculative Philosophy*, which contains a luminous and comprehensive view of both antient and modern metaphysicians. A similar publication by *Tennemann* has since appeared, and is yet more highly prized for research, especially into the obscurer archives of scholastic philosophy. Both these writers survey the entire history of metaphysical speculation: while M. Buhle, on the contrary, has confined himself to the ideology of the moderns. He is one of those lecturers at Göttingen who, under the direction of Professor *Eichhorn*, have assisted in a general history of arts and sciences from the revival of letters to the present time; and, undertaking the department of modern philosophy, he duly availed himself of the labours of eminent predecessors, and has supplied by personal research and assiduity the deficiencies of their collection of materials. We have now before us a French translation, not an abridgment, of his book; which has in it something of excessive detail, of tedious completeness; and in which the list of writers analyzed is less select than numerous, and the train of arguments condensed is copious even to repetition, when the peculiar and the characteristic might have sufficed. In reviewing an epitome of a part of M. *Bouterweck*'s History of Poetry, (M. R. vol. lxx. p. 449.) we had occasion to praise the good taste of the Parisian translator, for reducing into a convenient compass the essence of the work: but the present segment of the same enterprize has not undergone so judicious a curtailment.

A history of art and science has much attraction for all who wish to trace the origin of those successive discoveries, which have founded and ennobled the prosperity of civilized states: but the History of Philosophy has a yet stronger claim on our interest, as it more especially includes a sketch of the progress of the human mind itself; and as it describes those exercises of intellect which are common to all the thinking classes, and form the basis of excellence not only in speculative but in active life. The majority of men are more prone to believe than to judge: but all the additions to knowlege are made by those few who extend the circle of original observation, or re-examine established inferences. It may be, as Cicero pretends, that there is nothing so absurd as not to have been maintained by some philosopher: but it is certain that paradoxical and sophistical propositions often provoke investigation and discussion, and have repeatedly led to the detection of new truths. Hence even the records of error and credulity have a value; while the analytical statement of sound opinion informs the understanding, sharpens the judgment, reveals the deficiencies of science, and teaches the dialectic art.

M. *Jourdan*'s translation of the work of Professor BUHLE consists of six thick octavo volumes; of which the first is merely introductory, and contains a short history of antient philosophy as far as it has contributed to tinge the sentiments of modern writers. Thus the author dwells especially on Plato, Aristotle, Sextus Empiricus, and the Alexandrian Platonists, because they have influenced considerably the writers of later date. The Greeks had one advantage in philosophizing, over every subsequent literary nation; namely, that their language, being a mother-tongue and wholly self-derived, had formed its metaphysical vocabulary with consistency and precision; whereas the modern nations, importing some of their abstract terms from the Greek, some from the Latin, and deducing some of them from native resources, have seldom succeeded in giving an exact and necessarily intelligible nomenclature to the phænomena under discussion. Hence logomachies, and grammatical disputes, growing out of a misunderstood or ill-defined phraseology, abound in modern philosophy, and perplex the pursuit of truth. The theory of mind, as Lord Monboddo observes, has been retrograde.

This introductory sketch of antient metaphysics has the fault of not being executed in a strictly chronological order. Thus the sentiments of Epicurus are analyzed (pp. 90—98.) before those of Plato, (pp. 115—199.) whereas Plato flourished first. The displacement of the historic fact conceals an important law of intellect; namely, that there is a natural order in which our opinions are formed and succeed one another; and that this natural order applies alike to individuals and to societies. In the state of youthful vigour, philosophy is most willingly conversant (see our xxist vol. p. 509.) with those ideas and opinions which lead to and harmonize with the consistent doctrines of free-will, immaterialism, immortality, and a Creator: while in her declining age she dwells on those observations and theories which lead to and are associated with the doctrines of necessity, materialism, "eternal sleep," and atheism; until, at length, regretting the consolations thus cast away, and ashamed of the morals thus propagated, she takes refuge in some form of supernaturalism, or abandons awhile the human mind to the dead repose of ignorance.

Another fault pervades this sketch; the opinions of antient philosophers are frequently translated into the scholastic dialect of *Kant*, and are consequently misrepresented. It is said, for instance, (p. 209.) that Aristotle considered perception as a passive faculty, and admitted only its *receptivity*: whereas, at the close of the third chapter of his third book, *on the Soul*, he expressly ranks memory among the voluntary energies, which is in fact attributing activity and spontaneity to recollected perception; — and, no doubt, Aristotle is right in considering memory as a sort of semi-volition, as a motion from within outwards, and not, like sensation, a motion from without inwards. In Enfield's *Brucker*, (vol. i. pp. 278—288.) the analysis of Aristotle's Metaphysics approaches much nearer to the original document than the paraphrase of M. BUHLE. On the other hand, his account of Sextus Empiricus surpasses in completeness that of *Brucker*, but is still vitiated by the insertion of the Kantian nomenclature. For example, Sextus

Empiricus is said, at p. 561., to have taught that tl
jective truth but not the objective truth of a sensation
proved. This is certainly not the language of Sextus I
cus; nor does it accurately describe his doctrine: for he
that the mind is conversant with *noumena* only, not wit
nomena; and he denies to the forms of our perceptio
our *fantasies,* as he calls them, — the power of commun
truth: he admits therefore at most their subjective reali
their subjective truth. In the twelfth part of Stanley
tory of Philosophy is an excellent analysis of the sys
Sextus Empiricus; which, for precision and fidelity, su
that of M. Buhle; and which, though full of obsole
biage, still deserves to be consulted by modern metaphy
as a repository both of facts and of arguments that are i
days too little heeded. Cudworth, also, has displaye
knowlege of the antient metaphysicians.

The second section of the introduction, which be
p. 456., treats of the influence of oriental philosophy
Alexandrian school, and thus on European instr
M. Buhle attributes to the Zend-avesta a greater an
than it is proved to possess. Whatever the section
production, intitled *Boundehesch,* contains in commo
the book of Genesis, it no doubt derived from the b
Genesis; and whatever it contains concerning the re
and apostacy of the fallen angels was as probably
from the book of Enoch, which also formed a part
Jewish and Persian Scriptures in the time of Ezra, or
aster. Cyrus and Darius were both of the church of
and the whole Persian empire may be supposed to ha
in its temples many of the same books, and chaunted
of the same psalter, which Nehemiah committed to t
of the priests of Jerusalem, and caused to be regularl
mulgated in synagogues by Pharisees, or Persian
The manicheism of the oriental Hebrews never found
with the philosophers of Alexandria, nor did the tri
their Platonists with the gnostics of Babylon: wh
gradual separation took place between the unitarian H
of the East, who became at last Mohammedans, and th
tarian Hebrews of the West, who became Christians.
Parthians are so called from *Prath,* the eastern name
river Euphrates, and used the same language with th
descendants of Abraham. The Magophonia of Darius,
established the religion of Zoroaster in the temples
Persian empire, was annually commemorated by the ch
Jerusalem, under the name of the feast of Purim:

which decisively proves the identity of Jewish and Persian religion.

A full analysis of the works of Philo occurs at pp. 504—515. of this section. It is attentively made, but perhaps does not sufficiently bring out the peculiar pantheism of this writer, who regards matter and spirit as two co-eternal principles of the divine nature. Matter is with him uncreated, self-subsistent, plastic but indestructible: he considers it as the *generating* cause, and spirit as the *generated* cause; in pursuance of which metaphor he separates the body and soul of the universe into God the Father and God the Son, assigning to the latter the denomination of λογος, the Word, or Wisdom. This system obtained a reception in the ecclesiastical schools, and continues to influence the phraseology of religious creeds: but historians of philosophy have hitherto been too inattentive to that branch of it, which became incorporated with the doctrines of the priesthood. — To Plotinus a vast extent of notice is vouchsafed; and also to Saint Augustin.

The third section of the introduction begins at p. 663., and contains a concise view of the scholastic philosophy. Much is said of the influence of Arabian literature during the middle ages; and Scotus, Anselm, Roger Bacon, Richard of Middleton, Occam, Walter Burleigh, John of Salisbury, and others, pass in sufficient review.

Volume II. opens with a general sketch of the revival of literature, which occupies two chapters. In the third is criticized the philosophy of Petrarch; and from his book *De Remediis utriusque Fortunæ*, and from his ascetic treatise *De Vitâ solitariâ*, long extracts are given. He was, in the modern world, the father of a graceful mode of philosophizing, borrowed from Cicero; and he contributed much to bring into disuse the formalities of the schoolmen, and to prepare the introduction of their questions into good company.—The history of Platonism and of Aristotelism follows; and a copious account is given of the Pneumatology of Marsilius Ficinus, who, with considerable success, attempted to revive at Florence a taste for pagan religion: many of his writings have a tendency analogous to those of Mr. Thomas Taylor among ourselves. The Cabalistic philosophy, or fatuity, is noticed; and much use is made of *Eisenmenger's Judaism unveiled*, which is a pervasive guide through this dim and subterraneous apartment, inhabited by the lunatics of literature.

Section 2. of this Vol. is introduced with a survey of the influence exerted on philosophy by the restoration of classical literature, and by the reformation of Luther. Melanchthon's works are examined at length; and then the Peripatetics of the sixteenth century. The fourth chapter deserves pause; since it contains a curiously complete account of the writings of *Bruno*, which are very scarce, and, though often mentioned in bibliographic catalogues, have rarely been perused. In a recent English publication intitled *The Theological Inquirer*, the editor undertook some account of *Bruno*, but could only quote passages from the *Spaccio della Bestia trionfante;* to which we will add, by the help of M. Buhle, some farther information.

Giordano Bruno was born at Nola, in the Neapolitan territory, about the middle of the sixteenth century. The condition of his parents is unknown, but was probably obscure, as he was placed in a convent of Dominicans, and there took the robes of the order. To Latin literature and mathematics he was no stranger: but the vicious orthography of the Greek words quoted by him shews that he had made no great proficiency in the language of Lucian, to whose turn of mind he had some tendency. What occasioned his flight from Italy is not exactly recorded; probably, the having handed about in manuscript some of those heretical works which he afterward printed at Paris, with the epigraph Venice. In 1582 he visited Geneva, and attended the public instructions of Calvin and Beza: but, not adopting their points of view, he quarrelled with these intolerant men, and was obliged to quit the place in less than two years. He removed first to Lyons, thence to Toulouse, and in 1584 to Paris, where he publicly attacked the Aristotelian philosophy. Here also he became acquainted with M. *de Chateauneuf*, who came to London as ambassador from the court of France, and brought *Bruno* in his train. While in England, he was much noticed by Sir Philip Sidney; and he visited Oxford, where he probably printed in 1585 his *Explicatio triginta sigillorum*, a book without date or name of place. In 1586 he went to Wittenberg, and lectured there; thence to Prague, and to Helmstadt, where Henry Julius, Duke of Brunswick Luneburg, shewed him attention. At Frankfort also he gave a course of lectures, and published some books. In 1592 he ventured to establish himself at Padua: but the supposed tolerance of the Venetian government was not a sufficient protection against papal persecution. In 1598 he was arrested at Venice by the Inquisition, was arraigned for heresy, apostacy, and breach of monastic vows; and, after some length of confinement, during which the opportunity of retractation is said to have been offered in vain, he was, pursuant to his sentence, burnt alive at Rome on the seventeenth of February 1600, "and went to tell in other worlds," says the brutal Scioppius, "how we serve blasphemers in this."—*Bruno* had a brilliant and creative fancy, a copious eloquence, an original turn of speculation, and was variously acquainted with the opinions of antient philosophy, in whose forms he reasoned: but his judgement was inferior to his comprehension, he wasted argumentation on trifles, and his inferences did not cohere with the consistency of a truly strong intellect. His works are, *Spaccio della Bestia trionfante*, 1584:—*Cena delle Ceneri*, 1584:—*Della Causa, Principio, ed Uno*, 1584;—*Dell' infinito Universo*, 1584:—*Explicatio triginta Sigillorum*, 1585:—*Degli heroici Furori*, 1586:—a comedy intitled *Il Candelaio*;—and some indecent dialogues called *Cabala del cavallo Pegaseo coll' asino Cillenico* are also ascribed to him. He moreover commented on the works of Raymond Lully in two books, supposed to have been printed at Lyons, and intitled *De compendiosa Architecturâ* and *De Umbris Idearum*, (these are of the year 1582,); and in three other books printed at Wittenberg, Prague, and Frankfort, intitled *De Lampade Combinatoria*, 1587, *De Specierum Scrutinio*, 1588, and *De Monade, Numero, et Figurâ*, 1591. We have also to add an *Oratio Valedictoria*, delivered and published at Wittenberg, and an *Oratio Consolatoria*, delivered and published at Helmstadt. All the works of *Bruno* rank among the rarest bibliothecal curiosities: but they are here analyzed severally, from attentive perusal, in so satisfactory a manner, that the original treatises may in a great degree be spared by future historians of philosophy. The poetry of imagination displayed in certain works of *Bruno* has given to these a more popular celebrity: but for depth of reasoning M. BUHLE prefers the book intitled *Della Causa, Principio, ed Uno*; of which an analysis is added in the words of Jacobi, and which seems both to have furnished many ideas to Spinosa and to have borrowed some from Plotinus.

Cardanus was insane, and scarcely deserves the extent of notice here allotted to him. *Pomponazzi* is not duly named in chronological order. Both these writers tinged considerably the mind of *Vanini*; who, like *Bruno*, fell a victim to the persecuting intolerance of the church of Rome. In *Vanini*, however, a coarseness of invective and of profaneness is observable which tends to excite animosity: for example:—"*Ex bibliorum contextu infertur, Dæmonem Deo prævalere. Reluctante Dei voluntate, Adamum et Evam totumque genus humanum ad interitum duxit; cumque malo huic Dei filius occurrere vellet, et ipso etiam Dæmone judicum animos sollicitante,*

tante, Christus asserit: hæc est hora vestra et potestas tenebrarum: morte turpissimâ damnatus est. Efficacior est juxta biblicum codicem Diaboli quam Dei voluntas. Vult Deus, omnes homines salvos fieri; perpauci tamen servantur. Vult Dæmon, damnari omnes; innumeri damnantur. Ex amplissimo terræ gremio soli Christiano Catholici, qui in augustissimis Italiæ, Hispaniæ, nonnullarum Galliæ, Germaniæ et Poloniæ provinciarum limitibus continentur, servari possunt. Ab his si auferas Judæos, occultos Hereticos, Atheos, Simoniacos, Adulteros, masculorum Concubitores, qui regnum Dei non possidebunt, vix e mille millibus unus electus aderit." This, however, was advanced principally with a view to tease; for to the priest who attended shortly before his execution, and exhorted him to recant, he answered that there were no dæmons but bad men, and no gods but kings and princes; that in this faith he had lived, and in this he would die. He was burnt alive at Toulouse at the age of thirty-four.

A fifth and concluding chapter brings down the history of philosophy to the appearance of Lord Bacon. Not sufficient justice is done here to that improvement of the mode of reasoning which was introduced by his powerful mind, the substitution of induction for argumentation *à priori*: but the Germans, and especially the followers of *Kant*, still attach value to the Aristotelian method.

The Third Volume begins with the system of *Descartes*; and the writer dwells on his correspondence with Hobbes, who discussed many of his writings. A second chapter treats of his antagonist *Gassendi*, who also commented on Lord Herbert's book on truth. The third chapter is allotted to Hobbes, and *Grotius*; the latter of whom is severely criticized. A fourth treats of the Jesuits, of *Pascal*, of *Huet*, and of *Glanvill*, to whom is ascribed the invention of an argument adopted by Hume in his essay on the Idea of necessary Connection. The fifth chapter pursues the history of Cartesianism; the sixth analyzes *Malebranche*: while the seventh treats of the pneumatology of the seventeenth century, and assigns great merit to *Bekker* for overthrowing the popular belief in ghosts. The eighth chapter is a very long and laborious epitome of the doctrine of *Spinosa*, whose virtuous life is duly praised, and whose singular system is expounded in phraseology not much clearer than that of the original *Tractatus theologico-politicus*, which first appeared in 1670. In substance, his theory is the material pantheism of antient philosophy, translated into the disgusting jargon of the modern scholastics.—The ninth and concluding chapter treats of Cudworth, More, and the Platonists.

Volume IV. opens with a general sketch of the state of philosophy at the end of the seventeenth century. *Bayle* is the first conspicuous name in the ensuing age: an excellent biography of him is given; and the more original of his dialectic excursions are brought into notice. Something is said of Newton, but his metaphysical declarations are very few and ill-argued. *Leibnitz* occupies much space: in mathematics he was the rival and in metaphysics the superior of Newton; yet his system has many weak sides. Locke follows, and is analyzed at great extent: his doctrine that there are no innate ideas is combated; and a great philanthropic value is assigned to his Letters on Toleration. Algernon Sydney's theory of government is examined; and next, with unwelcome anachronism, that of Harrington. *Puffendorf*, *Tschirnhausen*, *Thomasius*, and *Wolf*, then appear in procession, followed by the minor names of *Budde*, *Gundling*, *Glafey*, and *Ridiger*.

Of the fifth volume the first chapter is allotted to *Baumgarten*, the father of æsthetic philosophy, to *Meier*, *Crusius*, and *Darjes*. A separate chapter contemplates *Crousaz* and *Creuz;* and an entire section is bestowed on Berkeley, much of whose sophistry is ably exposed. Hume occurs next, and his Treatise of Human Nature is epitomized with care, as well as his maturer essays. Then follow Reid, Beattie, and Oswald, his antagonists; and some importance is attached to the arguments of Reid. Hartley and Search are next appretiated, considerably below their English standard of reputation. Mandeville is highly praised. Shaftesbury, Chesterfield, Addison, Steele, Pope, and Bolingbroke, are reviewed in one chapter, as if they had invented little, and only served to circulate in the genteel world the opinions of thinking men. To Hutcheson's system a distinct segment is allotted. Then comes a chapter concerning Wollaston, Clarke, Price, Ferguson, Home, Macaulay-Graham, and Stewart; and it is observed that Price's *Review of the principal Questions in Morals* has influenced Professor *Kant*'s doctrine in that department. A long section is exclusively consecrated to the metaphysical works of Priestley, especially to his *Examination of Reid's Inquiry* and to his *Disquisitions on Matter and Spirit.* In noticing the antagonists of Priestley, mention is made of Mr. John Palmer of Islington, who wrote in defence of the (moral) liberty of man, against the necessarians; and of him it is (p. 582.) erroneously said that he was exiled to Botany-bay; whereas it was the Reverend T. Fyshe Palmer who fell a victim to the intolerance of the Pitt and Melville administration. The whole controversy is recorded with almost excessive detail; and the extreme want of candour is lamented with which Priestley appretiated Hume.

Theories of Political Economy are treated in a separate section, and a copious epitome is given of the principal appertaining essays of Hume, and of the entire works of Adam Smith and Steuart. It is of little importance here to dwell on books so well known, but it is gratifying to observe the attention paid on the Continent to eminent English writers.

The sixth and concluding volume is to us the most valuable in this entire series; because it contains an account of many recent continental philosophers, whose arguments have as yet scarcely penetrated into this country. It is introduced by a general sketch of the eighteenth century, and dwells in the opening chapter on the works of *Condillac*, *Helvetius*, *Holbach*, *Robinet*, *Bonnet*, *Montesquieu*, *Burlamaqui*, *Vattel*, and *Réal*. A certain order of topics, rather than of time, induces M. Buhle to groupe his writers in a manner somewhat unfavourable to a detection of the historic filiation of ideas and systems; and thus, though Hartley had previously been examined, Hartley was indebted to Condillac for some trains of argument which are first reported here. — A diffuse but accurate analysis is given of the *Systême de la Nature*, a work here ascribed to Baron *Holbach*; and to which M. Buhle assigns the highest rank among the metaphysical writings of the French, for closeness and consistency of reasoning, and for spirited eloquence of compilation. He justly observes, however, that it neither supplies nor suggests a satisfactory answer to the argument *from design* in favour of a Providence; or, as it is here perhaps better named, to the argument *from the harmony of the universe*. Indeed, throughout the *Systême de la Nature* runs an artful suppression of the counter-arguments, many of which must have been well known to the author, and, if not known to him from reading, would have occurred to a mind so abundant in dialectic resource. It may be suspected, therefore, that this work is not the production of one individual, but that some zealous advocate, *Lagrange* perhaps, was employed to separate from the manuscripts of a more impartial thinker those *one-side* reasonings, which are so brilliantly stated in this celebrated declamation. Paley's Natural Theology forms an excellent antidote.

The history of French philosophy is continued in the ensuing twentieth chapter, by epitomizing the metaphysical works of *D'Argens*, *La Mettrie*, *Maupertuis*, *Rousseau*, *Voltaire*, *D' Alembert*, and *Diderot*; in which a preference of attention is given to *Maupertuis*.

Chapter xxi. contains a view of philosophy in Germany from the middle of the eighteenth century to the time of *Kant*. The writings of *Mendelsohn*, *Sulzer*, *Eberhard*, *Plattner*, *Tetens*, and *Feder*, are successively characterized; and, as they are less known in England than the French writers, it may be welcome to abstract something from this section:

'*Mendelsohn* was born at Dessau, in 1729, of poor Jew-parents, and studied early at Berlin the antient languages and rabbinical writers. Placed at fourteen years of age in a commercial situation, he had not ample leisure: but he still gave much attention to literature, and had the good fortune to become acquainted with *Lessing* and *Nicolai*. The former was kind to him, gave him gratuitous instructions in Greek, and enabled him to construe Plato. *Mendelsohn* continued patiently to cultivate trade, as far as this was necessary for his maintenance: but he also assisted in a Review called *Letters of Literature*, which *Nicolai* printed, and occasionally set forth publications more original. He died in 1785. His works consist of, 1. Letters on the Sensations, 1755. 2. Phædon, 1776; an imitation of Plato's dialogues, in which the original arguments are modernized and strengthened: it has been well translated into English by Mr. Cullen. 3. Jerusalem, 1783: a defence of tolerating Jews. 4. Morning Hours, 1786: lectures on truth, appearance, and error, principally directed to prove the being of a God. 5. Some translations from the Jewish Scriptures, accompanied by a liberal commentary, and a number of private letters chiefly relative to the opinions of *Lessing*. A mildness of manner, a cordial charity of feeling, and a purity of intention, assimilate him as a moralist with Dr. Price.

'*John George Sulzer*, a friend of *Mendelsohn*, was born at Winterthur, in Swisserland, studied theology at Zurich, and obtained in 1741 the situation of preacher, which he resigned in order to undertake a preceptorship in a distinguished family; and he afterward became *Intendant* at Magdeburg. In 1747, he was invited as mathematical professor to the Joachimsthal college at Berlin, where he became a member of the Academy. A short time before his death, being troubled with *heim-weh*, an eager desire of again seeing his native country, he returned to Swisserland, published his tour, and died in 1779. His principal work is a *Theory of the Fine Arts*, digested into a dictionary, which appeared in 1774. He also wrote an elementary *Compendium of Knowlege*, which was much used in schools, but has been superseded; and *Miscellaneous Philosophical Essays*, in which the immortality of the soul, the reasoning faculty, the being of a God, and the nature of ideas, are discussed.

'*John Augustus Eberhard*, a preacher at Charlottenburg, near Berlin, published an *Apology for Socrates*, which defends the charitable doctrine that heathens will be saved. He became professor of philosophy at Halle, and printed in 1776 a *Theory of Thought and Sensation*, and a *Discourse on Truth and Error*.

'*Ernest Plattner*, professor of physiology at Leipzig, is known by three good works, intitled *Philosophic Aphorisms*, *New Anthropology for*

for Physicians, and *Physiological Questions:* but his style is somewhat incoherent.

'*John Nicholas Tetens*, originally professor of philosophy at Kiel, became privy counsellor at Copenhagen, and published an Analysis of the thinking Faculty, under the title of *Philosophic Essays on Human Developement*, 1777. He first introduced several of those technical terms which have been adopted by the school of *Kant*, such as *receptivity* and *spontaneity*.

'*John George Henry Feder* was professor of Greek and Hebrew at Coburg; was afterward invited to Göttingen, where he lectured many years, and attached every body to him by his amenity, affability, and comprehension of knowlege; and finally accepted at Hanover the direction of the college of St. George. His earliest work was *The new Emilius*, an elegant and interesting critical theory of education. A *Manual of Logic and Metaphysics* followed, which displays the eclectic philosopher: but, as no eclectic philosophy can cohere, or be throughout consistent with itself, so it never lasts; and *Feder*, whenever he republished his Manual, which went through many editions, was found to have changed vast segments of his opinions.

'*Herman Samuel Reimarus*, born at Hamburg in 1694, became master of the gymnasium in that town, where he died in 1765. His works on the *Instincts of Animals*, and on *Natural Theology*, have left profound traces in the schools of philosophy.

'*John Henry Lambert* was born in 1728 at Muhlhausen. His father, a French refugee, could ill afford him an education: but he acquired learning enough to be employed as preceptor to the sons of M. *de Salis*, whom he accompanied to college, and in their travels. This connection led to higher patronage, and he obtained from Frederic the Great the place of surveyor of the buildings at Berlin. He published a good book on logic, intitled *Neues Organon;* became a member of the Prussian academy; and died in 1777. His work had great influence in preparing the Kantian system of philosophy.

'*John Bernard Basedow*, the son of a barber, was born at Hamburg in 1725; was brought up in the free school there; was sent to college; changed more than once his place of study; was ordained minister; became an Unitarian; and at last obtained the foundation of a new academy at Dessau, called the *Philanthropinum*, of which he was named principal. He was a somewhat turbulent innovator, loved wine and tobacco too well, and died in 1785. He wrote *Philalethie*, a work on the religion of reason: a *Theoretic System of sound Education*, which vehemently enforces gymnastic exercises; and many other tracts. "*Naturam sequere ducem*" was his favourite motto:—his pursuits in literature much resembled those of Dr. Priestley.

'To the *Philalethie* of *Basedow*, *John Christian Lossius* opposed a book intitled *Physical Causes of Truth*, which has made a permanent impression.'

At length M. Buhle attains his fifth and concluding section, which is exclusively devoted to the history of the Critical

Philosophy and to the exposition of the system of *Kant;* whose book is here translated almost entire into French. The German title *Kritik der reinen Vernunft* may be rendered *Criterion of pure Reason.* As the work still exerts in Germany a diffusive influence, and has swallowed up the systems of preceding speculators, we shall enter into some detail of its contents.

Kant has taken *Sextus Empiricus* for his guide or model, and begins his introduction by dividing knowlege into *pure* and *empirical;* meaning by pure knowlege that which we obtain from our ideas, and by empirical knowlege that which we obtain from our sensations. Thus *Sextus Empiricus* opposes νουμενα, or internal perceptions, to φαινομενα, or external impressions: but he does not, like *Kant,* claim for that knowlege, which the mind acquires by contemplating itself, a superiority over that which it derives from experience. On the contrary, as all empirical knowlege implies a comparison of the *fantasy,* or representation, with the fact, and all ideal consciousness implies the absence and partial oblivion of its archetype, this knowlege at best resembles the speculation of a dream. The real topic of *Kant,* therefore, is to find the *Criterion of ideal Inferences.*

After an introduction, which absurdly ranks *pure* knowlege (we take the ill-chosen epithet in his own sense) with real knowlege, *Kant* proceeds to the definition of the word *space;* and this he maintains to be an instinctive or *à priori* idea. The word *space* belongs to that class of words which the grammarians call *privatives:* it is a positive expression for a negative quantity: it is the antithetic idea to matter: but it is only an idea, and has no exterior, or, as the Kantians say, no objective reality. (The word *subjective* is continually used for interior, and the word *objective* for exterior, by these barbarous jargon-mongers.) He next takes in hand the word *time,* maintaining that this also is a pure intuition; and he then says that space and time are forms of our perception. Now, if every thing exists in space and time, and if space and time exist only in idea, every thing exists only in idea. So say the objectors. *Kant* answers: (p. 449.) 'No doubt, bodies considered as absolute things are different from and independent of us; under this relation, the manner in which they exist is absolutely inconceivable to us: but, in order that they should appear to us, we must necessarily represent them to ourselves in space and time. The manner in which the thing becomes a phænomenon, or appearance, is explicable only subjectively, not objectively.' Such is the unmeaning assemblage of words which this writer holds out as philosophy.

Having finished this inquiry, which is called by the uncouth name of *transcendental æsthetics*, Professor *Kant* passes on to *transcendental logic;* and surely that logic must be of a transcendental description which is to demonstrate his propositions. This logic is subdivided into analytic and dialectic; and the analysis of ideas is undertaken, which are reduced under several categories, such as quantity, quality, relation, and modality. When he has familiarized by repetition a great variety of these abstract terms, the Professor at length plunges completely into the mud of unintelligibility. That we may not be accused of so mis-translating the German original, which lies before us, as purposely to favour this imputation, we will transcribe a page or two of the French version, which in this respect does no injustice to the philosopher of Königsberg.

'*Le premier principe du pur entendement sous la condition de l'unité synthétique,* à priori, *est le principe de la quantité* (axiome de l'intuition).

'Toutes les aperceptions sont, quant à leur intuition, des grandeurs extensives. *Les grandeurs extensives sont celles où l'idée du tout devient possible par l'idée des parties, qui doit précéder. Mais toutes les aperceptions ne peuvent être perçues que par la synthèse successive des parties dans l'acte de percevoir. C'est là-dessus que se fondent les axiomes de la géométrie, qui sont généraux, et qui, par cette raison même, s'appellent axiomes; au lieu que les propositions évidentes, qui déterminent des rapports de nombre, sont bien aussi synthétiques, mais ne sont pas générales, et ne peuvent, en conséquence, point s'appeler des axiomes, mais ne doivent porter que le nom de formules numériques.*

'*Le second principe est celui de la qualité* (anticipation de l'aperception).

'Dans toutes les aperceptions, le réel, qui, dans la sensation, correspond à l'objet, a une grandeur intensive, c'est-à-dire, un degré. *Toute connaissance susceptible de faire déterminer ou connaître l'empirique,* à priori, *peut s'appeler anticipation. Ainsi, les pures déterminations des aperceptions, l'espace et le temps, sont des anticipations d'aperceptions. Mais, toute aperception exigeant aussi une matière fournie par la sensation, et devant être quelque chose qui soit reconnu* à priori *comme correspondant à la sensation en général, c'est là principalement ce qu'il faut appeler anticipation d'aperception. Cette anticipation consiste en ce que toute sensation doit avoir une grandeur intensive, qui n'est saisie que comme unité, et à l'égard de laquelle la pluralité ne peut être conçue que par l'approximation à la négation. La grandeur intensive, ou le degré de la sensation, peut présenter de très-grandes différences à cause de celles de son approximation à la négation; mais toute sensation doit avoir un degré quelconque. La plus petite partie de la grandeur (le simple) n'est pas apercevable: c'est pourquoi toute grandeur a de la continuité. Au reste, le degré de la sensation n'exprime qu'une chose réelle, en général, correspondante*

à l'objet; mais la nature ne peut point en être reconnue à priori, *et il faut qu'elle le soit empiriquement.*

'*Le troisième principe est celui de la rélation* (principe des analogies de l'expérience).

'Toutes les aperceptions sont, quant à leur présence, soumises *à priori,* aux règles de la détermination du rapport qui existe entr'elles dans un temps. *Les aperceptions sont dans le temps. Le temps est* à priori, *et il a trois modes; fixité, succession, et simultanéité. C'est pourquoi il doit y avoir aussi trois règles* à priori *de la présence des aperceptions dans un temps. Ces trois règles sont, à leur tour, subordonnées à la condition de l'unité synthétique du multiple* à priori *dans le temps en général, et c'est là dessus que ce fonde leur principe suprême. Les règles elles-mêmes* (analogies d' expérience) *sont*

'1°. Toutes les aperceptions renferment le fixe comme l'objet lui-même, qui demeure semblable dans le temps, et le variable comme la détermination ou le mode de l'existence de cet objet (Principe de la fixité, Inhérence). *Sans cette règle, nulle perception d'un phénomène dans un temps donné ne serait possible.*

'2°. Tout ce qui arrive suppose quelque chose à quoi il succède nécessairement (Principe de production, Conséquence). *La série des phénomènes pourrait être purement successive, une succession qui n'exprimât qu'un enchaînement subjectif dans l'appréhension; mais on ne découvre point encore d'après cela si elle aurait aussi lieu objectivement dans la pluralité des phénomènes. Cependant, à chaque phénomène qui commence, on voit que l'état antérieur à ce commencement précède seulement, et ne peut suivre: il faut donc ici que l'enchaînement subjectif des aperceptions soit déterminé par l'enchaînement objectif des phénomènes. Le principe de la causalité rend donc possible la connaisance objective des phénomènes d'après leurs rapports dans la succession du temps.*

'3°. Toutes les substances, en tant qu'elles existent ensemble, sont en communauté, ou agissent réciproquement les unes sur les autres. (Principe de communauté, Composition). *Pour que les choses existent ensemble, il faut qu'elles occupent l'espace dans le même temps. On reconnaît qu'elles existent ensemble, à ce que l'ordre de la synthèse de l'appréhension du multiple est indifférent, et ne doit point nécessairement être successif. Mais la simultanéité des phénomènes ne pourrait être aperçue s'ils ne déterminaient pas réciproquement leur place dans le temps. Donc une substance doit renfermer la causalité des déterminations des autres, et les effets de la causalité de ces dernières; ou les substances doivent être en communauté les unes avec les autres.*

'*Le quatrième principe est celui de la modalité:* Toute chose connaissable en général doit être dans un rapport quelcónque avec nos facultés intellectuelles (Principe des postulats de la pensée empirique en général). *Les postulats sont;*

'*A. Ce qui s'accorde, d'après l'intuition, et les idées, avec les conditions formelles de l'expérience, est possible.*

'*B. Ce qui s'accorde avec les conditions matérielles de l'expérience (par sensation) est réel.*

‘ *C. Ce dont la liaison avec le réel est déterminé d'après les conditions générales de l'experience, existe nécessairement.*

‘ *Il est maintenant facile, à l'aide de ces quatre principes du pur entendement, d'expliquer, d'une manière satisfaisante, la possibilité des mathématiques et de la science de la nature* à priori. *Les mathématiques ont pour objets les différens états de l'espace et du temps, qui sont donnés comme formes de l'intuition* à priori. *L'entendement élabore ces différens états d'après les règles de la logique, et comme les apparitions doivent correspondre aux conditions de l'espace et du temps, qui sont toux deux les formes de leur intuition, il faut aussi que les rapports de l'espace et du temps se trouvent dans les apparitions. La possibilité des pures mathématiques repose donc sur ce que les objets n'en peuvent être conçus que sous la forme de l'espace et du temps, c'est-à-dire, comme apparitions. Mais, en même temps, il est clair d'après cela que l'emploi des mathématiques ne peut pas s'étendre au delà des apparitions dans l'espace et le temps.*'

We can safely assure our readers that this is by no means the climax of obscurity to be found in this esoteric writer. If it be conceded to him that there are organic, instinctive, or innate ideas, and that such ideas constitute an *à priori* knowlege, or consciousness, common to the whole human race, still these ideas themselves have been derived from internal sensations: so that the old axiom remains true, that there is nothing in the intellect which was not first in the sense; and, if this be established, the whole system of *Kant* falls to the ground, which is founded on the principle of arriving at knowlege independently of experience.

A concluding chapter traces the history of the Critical Philosophy in Germany, which had many eminent adherents. As, however, several populous universities exist in Germany, and all of them possess lecturers who are ever on the watch, or extraordinary professors who are ambitious or covetous of raising a class, it is common in that country to attach a sudden importance to philosophic novelties; and to give to Craniology, or to Kantism, or to Animal Magnetism, a fashion which enables such itinerant or *unbeneficed* lecturers to subsist, and often places them in permanent situations. To this local tendency we may in some degree ascribe the success of the Critical Philosophy. It also operated as a cypher of illuminism, (see our twenty-eighth volume, p. 65.) in which public discussions of the boldest nature might be carried on from the press, without alarming the prejudices of the people or exciting the precautions of the magistrate; and for this purpose many revolutionary writers favoured the acquirement of the dialect of *Kant.* We trust that it will not be suffered extensively to corrupt the literature of France, or of England.

The work before us, of which we must now take leave, deserves high praise, and will form a convenient text-book for those lecturers in our public institutions who have chosen the history of philosophy for their topic. An entire translation, however, is not so much to be advised as a judicious abridgement, because much of the commentary on English writers would be superfluous here; and the admixture of the Kantian nomenclature should every where be expunged.

ART. II. *Topographie de tous les Vignobles connus,* &c.; *i.e.* A Topographical View of all the known Vine-districts, explaining their Geographical Position, the Kind and Qualities of the Products of each, the principal Wine-trading Stations, the Names and Capacities of the Casks and Measures in use, the ordinary Modes of conveying them, &c. &c. accompanied by a general Classification of Wines. By A. JULLIEN, Author of the Butler's Manual, and Inventor of the Æriferous Tubes, and other Instruments for decanting and filtrating Liquors. 8vo. pp. 590. Paris. 1816. Imported by De Boffe. Price 12s. sewed.

LEST this high-sounding title should excite a suspicion of *quackery*, we must apprize our readers, *in limine*, that the work before us conveys a considerable portion of practical knowlege respecting the growth and commerce of wines, in correct and perspicuous language. As, moreover, in situations in which the temperature of the climate is inadequate to ripen the juice of the grape, or neglect or prejudice has prevented its culture, the inhabitants have usually had recourse to the more homely substitutes of cider, ale, palm-wine, &c., these accessories have also attracted M. JULLIEN's notice: so that his book may thus be said to present us with a descriptive catalogue of those fermented liquors which, under all diversities of latitude, and the restraints of law or religion, continue to exhilarate our social hours. It must, perhaps, be granted that they contribute, at the same time, to deteriorate the physical and moral condition of our species: yet still the vine has so *interwoven its branches* with our civil institutions, and *struck its roots* so deeply into our systems of agriculture and commerce, that he would be deemed a most rigid reformer who, if he could, would cancel its existence. At all events, its fruit is not only innoxious but grateful to the palate, and highly nutritious; and, if it furnishes a beverage that is too often perverted to unworthy purposes, we should not forget that the same cordial has revived the frame when sinking under languor and disease; that it is a less baneful, and more elegant, article of luxury than ardent spirits; and that, with the progress of civilization and refinement, its immoderate use becomes restrained by the sway of public opinion, and the influence of public manners.

The plan which M. Jullien proposes, and which, as far at least as France is concerned, he steadily pursues, is to define the geographical boundaries of the various tracts which he has had occasion to survey; to note the kinds and qualities of the wines for which they are distinguished; to assign to them their respective degrees of merit; to register the average annual quantity produced in each district; and to state the names and capacities of the vessels in which they are kept, the measures by which they are sold, and the depôts from which they are distributed by means of water or land-conveyance. It may, perhaps, be fairly alleged that the geographical indications are often unnecessarily minute; and, though the numerical returns of yearly crops, produced within particular boundaries, *may* approximate to the truth, and certainly are set down with apparent confidence, we are seldom informed of the authority on which they rest. We must also say that the writer's divisions of wines appear to us both unphilosophical and incommodious; *genera* being deduced from *consistency* and *colour*, although he is perfectly aware 'that wines which differ in colour may, nevertheless, be of the same genus in respect of consistency; and that *dry*, *sweet*, or *mellow* wines indifferently assume all tints.' Thus the two sources or principles of his generic distinctions are completely blended. Instances are also recorded, in the sequel, of the colour changing with age, while the virtue of the liquor remains unimpaired, or is even improved. His three principal species, again, are the *fine*, the *ordinary*, and the *common*: epithets which are equally unsusceptible of any very definite or permanent meaning; and the author himself is too conversant with his subject not to be sensible that the intermediate shades are numerous beyond description, the varieties of the vine itself probably exceeding two thousand, while other countless circumstances more or less affect every process of fermentation. For the purposes of popular instruction, therefore, it might be advisable to reduce his aukward nomenclature to three great *elasses*, the *dry*, the *sweet*, and the *intermediate*. We must add, however, in justice, that M. Jullien has explained the import of his different titles with so much clearness, as to obviate much ambiguity which might have otherwise ensued in the perusal of his work.

In his interesting exposition of the vineyards of France, the author might have spared his readers the formal delineations of those departments which either produce no wine, or yield that which is of a very inferior quality. Presuming that *our* readers, at least, would scarcely thank us for the sour grapes of Picardy, we shall introduce them, without farther preface, into Champagne and Burgundy.

The sparkling white wines, which are so generally and so highly prized, are chiefly procured from the neighbourhood of Rheims and Epernay; viz. at Sillery, Ay, Mareuil, Hautvillers, Pierry, and Disy. These are usually obtained from a mixture of the black and the white grape; the former chiefly consisting of varieties provincially denominated *morillons* and *pineaux*, and the latter of the *plantes dorées* and the *épinettes*. The most esteemed red Champagnes are those of Versy, Versenay, Mailly, Saint-Basle, and Bouzy; which are denominated *de la Montagne*, and the *Clos de Saint-Thierry*.

'The grapes destined to the manufacture of the *rose-coloured* wine are gathered with the same precaution as those which are employed in preparing the white wine, and they receive the same treatment under the press: but they are previously plucked from the stalks, and lightly trodden in vessels appropriated to the purpose; in which they remain until the incipient fermentation, by dissolving a portion of the colouring resin, imparts to the must the pink tint that is wanted.

'In making this rosy wine, they have sometimes recourse to a liquor known in the country by the appellation of *Fismes-wine.** It is extracted from the berries of the elder, which are boiled with cream of tartar, and then passed through a filter. A few drops of this liquor will communicate the rose-tint to a bottle of white wine, without altering its flavour or wholesomeness; yet, as this composition is extraneous to the wine, it would be desirable to dispense with it.

'The high price of the sparkling Champagne wines is owing not merely to the quality of the wines selected, and the excessive attention which they require before they are in a marketable state, but also to the considerable losses and advances to which the proprietors and merchants, who speculate on the commodity, are liable; as well as to the capricious phænomena which determine or destroy the sparkling property. With regard to loss, the owners generally reckon on the breaking of fifteen or twenty bottles in the hundred, and the number sometimes amounts to thirty or forty. To this original loss of liquor and bottles, should be added the waste incurred at each separation of the wine from its precipitates, by *disgorging*†; an operation which they undergo at least twice before they are consigned to conveyance.

'As to those phænomena which determine or destroy the sparkling quality of this wine, they are quite surprizing and inexplicable;

'* Prepared in the town of that name, at six leagues from Rheims.'

'† This is a process by which the lees of the bottle are removed, and the wine left perfectly clear.'

plicable; for the same wine, bottled on the same day, in bottles from the same glass-house, deposited in the same cellar, and placed on the same heap, sparkles at a given height in a particular direction, while it exhibits the same property in a much fainter degree, or is even quite dead, in another position, as near a door or under an air-hole. Some wines, again, which at first sparkle with the utmost vivacity, are observed to lose this property entirely on a change of seasons. The dearness of frothy wines, therefore, results from the combination of all these accidents; which are so various and so extraordinary, that the most practised dealers cannot always either foresee or guard against them.

'The quality of the ingredients employed in the manufacture of the bottles, and perhaps also the degree of heat to which they have been subjected, contribute to diminish or preserve the vivacity of the Champagne wines. We have been assured that even the glasses used in drinking them may produce similar effects; and that, in some, all effervescence is arrested as soon as the wine is poured into them, while in others, filled at the same time, it is kept alive.* Hence we need not be surprized to find, in the same basket, bottles of which the contents sparkle with more or less briskness, and others which give no indication of such a property.

'Frothy wines should be bottled in the month of March that succeeds the vintage. The fermentation usually commences in the month of May, and continues throughout the summer; and it is particularly strong in June, during the flowering of the vine, and in August, when the grape begins to ripen. These are the periods at which the proprietors suffer most from the breaking of the bottles; when it is imprudent to walk through a well-stocked cellar without being protected by a wire-mask, by neglecting which precaution work-people have been severely wounded by splinters of bottles. The fermentation abates in Autumn, and serious accidents rarely occur in the second year.'

It has been observed that the frothy quality of these wines is most generally manifested in seasons which have proved unfavourable to the complete maturation of the grape; the quantity of carbonic acid gas contained in the liquor being, apparently, in the inverse ratio of its spirit, or body: but, if, the grapes happen to be slightly affected by frost, when almost at the ripening point, the wine obtained will unite in an eminent degree the qualities of strength and liveliness. In this last case, the cold, by closing the pores of the fruit, is supposed to intercept its insensible transpiration, and to concentrate its fermentable principles.

'* It is probable that the glasses, which produce this effect, are those in which there is either an excess or an improper combination of alkaline parts; which, in that case, absorb the carbonic acid that is contained in the wine.'

'The principal traffic in the wines of Champagne is carried on at Rheims, Avize, and Epernay. The last-mentioned town is advantageously situated in the centre of the best vineyards, and in a soil favourable to the establishment of good cellars; which, excavated in a rock of tufa, are spacious, excellently adapted to the preservation and improvement of wines, and as solid as if they were supported by arches of stone. Those of M. *Moët* are especially remarkable on account of their extent, and form a sort of labyrinth from which it would be difficult to escape without a guide. The walls are lined to the height of six feet with bottles tastefully arranged; which, depositaries of the precious juice of the best vineyards of Champagne, await in this abode orders for their departure to distant countries. Few travellers pass this way without going to see these cellars, and even sovereigns have had the curiosity to visit them.'

M. Jullien includes Burgundy and Beaujolais in the same chapter, notwithstanding their geographical difference, because the wines of both have common qualities, and are sold not only by the same measurement but often under the same name. On a like principle, he has been induced to detach the *arrondissement* of Châlons-sur-Saône, and to consider it in conjunction with the department of the Côte-d'Or; so that the districts particularized in his eleventh chapter are, the department of the Yonne, that of the Côte-d'Or, including the *arrondissement* of Châlons-sur-Saône, the remainder of the departments of the Saône and Loire, and the *arrondissement* of Villefranche, in the department of the Rhône.

'The extent of territory allotted to the culture of the vine, since the Revolution, is remarkably increased; many of the proprietors having converted low and mashy grounds into vineyards; others having applied manure to the sloping surfaces, or invested them with new soil, in order to obtain more abundant crops; while others, again, have substituted young stocks for those which had grown old, and even those of an ordinary for those of a superior quality. Persons who purchase the produce of these degenerated vineyards, or who are furnished with the wines of a bad year for those of a good, suppose that the wines of Burgundy are no longer what they formerly were: but this opinion is founded on certain abuses, which are equally practised in all other wine-countries; and we shall see, in the course of this chapter, that, if Burgundy produces a much greater quantity of common wines than it did thirty years ago, the number of its good crops, so far from having diminished, has been augmented by the addition of many hills of which the products equal, if they do not surpass, both in quality and quantity, those which rapacity has been enabled to destroy or defame.'

The Burgundy wines have been commonly ranged under three distinct denominations; namely, those of *Lower Burgundy*, of *Upper*

Upper Burgundy, and of *Macon*. The first are grown in the department of the Yonne, which is formed of Lower Burgundy and a portion of Champagne; the second are peculiar to the Côte-d'Or, comprizing the *arrondissemens* of Châlons-sur-Saône, Dijon, Beaume, Chatillon-sur-Seine, and Semur; and the third are the products of the department of Saône and Loire, formed of a part of Upper Burgundy, and divided into the *arrondissemens* of Macon, Autun, Charolles, Louhans, and Villefranche. These three sorts of wine have also their appropriate qualities. Those of Lower Burgundy have, in general, less alcohol, aromatic flavour, and odour, than those of the upper parts of the province: but they are more lively, and retain, for a considerable length of time, that faint degree of harshness which characterizes claret. Those of the upper districts accord with the French ideas of perfect wine, possessing all the requisite qualities blended in the requisite proportions. The Macon varieties, again, have an inferior perfume, a coarser unctuousness, and a considerable degree of consistency, without being clammy.

In some parts of Lower Burgundy, particularly in the Auxerrois, the vine appears to have been cultivated when the Romans invaded Gaul. Some of the existing plants, which are mostly of the varieties called *black* and *white Pineau*, *Tresseau*, *Ronçain*, and *Gammé*, are ascertained to be upwards of a hundred years of age. The last, however, though it yields an abundant crop of fruit, deteriorates the quality of the wine; and the author says that 'it would be desirable to renew the edict of Charles IX., which prohibited the planting of the *infamous Gammé* in vineyards of the first order.'—Among the celebrated red wines of this district are those of Danemoine, Tonnerre, and Auxerre; and, among the white, those of Tonnerre and Chablis, the latter including Le Clos, Valmur, Vaudesir, &c.

The red grapes produced in the department of the Côte-d'Or, for the purpose of obtaining the first-rate wines, are the *Noirien* and *Pineau*; and the white, also of the first quality, are the *Chaudenay*, *Melon blanc*, and *Chasselas*. The best red wines which the district yields are the *Romanée Conti*, *Chambertin*, *Richebourg*, *Clos Vougeot*, *Romanée de Saint-Vivant*, *Tâche*, and *Saint-George*; and the white, of the first quality, are those of *Puligny* and *Mont-Rachet*.—The best red grapes cultivated in the department of the Saône and Loire are the *Bourguignon* and *Chanay*; and the best white are the *Chardonnat* and *Bourguignon*. To the first class of red wines, furnished by this department, belong those of the *Windmill*, *Torins*, and *Chenas*; and, to the first of the white, those of *Pouilly* and *Fuissey*.

M. Jullien has detailed, with much specialty of local nomenclature, the great diversities of Burgundy wine of the inferior classes; and we have only to express our regret that he has not bestowed equal attention on the modes of preparing those which are most in request. — In his systematic exposition of the wines of Franche Comté, he makes the following observations on those of Arbois:

'These wines would be much more highly prized, and would more frequently grace the banquets of our capital, if they were more carefully managed; and if the proprietors, following the example of the Champenois, would deliver them freed from all particles capable of affecting their transparency. With this view they should be fined, drawn off, not bottled till perfectly limpid, and allowed to repose a sufficient length of time, in order to insure them against muddiness; or, if any deposition should take place, it should be removed by disgorging *; an operation which the Champagne wines often undergo several times before they are delivered, and which renders them perfectly clear, and preserves them so for many years; whereas the Arbois wines are rarely clear, and soon form large depositions which alter their transparency and flavour. The owners and dealers in this tract of country do not sufficiently estimate the strength and frothy qualities of their wines; some of them frothing too much, and breaking the bottles, while others are not sufficiently sprightly, or are even destitute of the sparkling property, and must be kept a long time before they acquire the good qualities of still wines. These defects proceed, perhaps, from the nature of the wine. Though I am ignorant whether the necessary experiments have been made to ascertain this particular, I know that the Champenois have many difficulties to overcome, and that, in some years, they still suffer enormous losses by the breaking of the bottles: but their care and persevering activity maintain the reputation of their wines, which are the best of the sparkling kind known, as their white varieties hold the first rank among those of the still sorts.'

Though the wines of Charente are of very inferior reputation for the table, they yield the most esteemed brandy in Europe: the grape from which they are obtained, called the *Folle blanche*, being far from grateful to the palate, and producing a white wine that is destitute of pleasant flavour, but is very spirituous. The brandy distilled from the red wines is of inferior quality. In good years, the white wine yields a fifth of its bulk in brandy: but, in bad seasons, nine, ten, or even eleven parts of wine, are required for one of brandy. The proprietors distil on their own premises; and the brandies of the whole department pass, in trade, under the denomination of *Cognac*.

'* For the manner of disgorging the sparkling wines of Champagne, see the *Butler's Manual*.'

In the Lyonnais, we meet with the red wines of *Côte Rotie* and the sweet white wine of *Condrieux,* both unrivalled in their kinds. The former, which are produced on two shelving banks, have a strong body, combined with an exquisite vinous flavour, and a most agreeable perfume. They should be kept in the cask six or seven years, to acquire a sufficient degree of ripeness, and then bottled, when they are still susceptible of improvement for a number of years. The Condrieux sweet wine has no muscadine flavour, but a very balmy relish and odour. It may be kept for a long time, and assumes an amber tint in old age. Wine of a similar though inferior description is grown in the adjacent vineyards, and sold under the name of Condrieux: but we are not here informed from what sort of grape either the Côte Rotie or the Condrieux is produced.

The department of the Drome is noted for its red and white *Hermitage,* so called from a small district in the territory of *Tain,* in Dauphiny. The red is characterized by a strong body, a delicate vinous flavour, and a most pleasing perfume, partaking of that of the raspberry. In order to have it in perfection, it should be kept in the cask eight or ten years, according to the degree of the maturity of the grape employed; and, like the preceding, it still improves considerably in the bottle. The white is also a liquor of the first quality; very soft and unctuous, full of spirit, and of a fine essential odour. It may be kept for a long time, and becomes of an amber hue as it grows older. These delicate wines, however, are so scantily noticed by M. JULLIEN, that we entertain some doubts of his being particularly acquainted with their history.

Of the *Vins de Bourdeaux,* or various kinds of *Claret,* the extent and notoriety supply him with a far more copious theme, through the details of which we cannot presume to follow him. The red kinds, which figure in the first class, are those of *Lafitte, Latour, Chateau-Margaux,* and *Haut-Brion;* and the white in most request are those of *Graves, Dulamon, Pontac, Sauterne, Barsac, Preignac,* and *Beaumes.* The *travail à l'Anglaise,* or the process of rendering the pure native claret more vigorous for certain English palates, is particularly described: but the liquor which has undergone this manipulation is openly sold as *worked wine,* and at an advanced price, on account of the waste incurred and the additional pains bestowed.

Languedoc is particularly fertile in excellent wines, but few of them, comparatively, are exported. The white and muscadine sorts of *Lunel* and *Frontignan* have, however, obtained merited celebrity.

'Next to the muscadine wines of *Rivesaltes*, those of Frontignan are reputed the best in the kingdom, being distinguished by their sweetness, strength of body, a marked taste of the fruit, and a most exquisite perfume. They improve with age, may be preserved for a very long period, and sustain land or water-carriage without injury. The vine-tract which produces them extends over a vast plain, gently inclined to the south-east. *Lunel*, the chief place of the district, at five leagues north-east of Montpellier, also produces excellent muscadine wines, the best of which are equally prized with those of Frontignan: they are more precocious, and somewhat more light and delicate, but have less body, a relish less distinctly defined, and sooner lose their soundness. This description of wine forms but a small portion of the produce of the Lunel vineyards, which yield an ample store of common red wines that are almost wholly allotted to distillation.'

The vineyards of Provence supply more varieties of the grape than any region of France: but this very circumstance seems to deprive its wines of any very decided or appropriate flavour, so that they are not generally much in request. The department of Vaucluse, however, furnishes the red wines of *Coteau Brûlé*, *Chateauneuf*, and *Sorgues*, and the muscadine wines of *Beaumes*, all of which rank in the first class; while the inspissated sorts of *Aubagnes*, *Cassis*, and *Ciotat*, especially when of mature age, are deemed by competent judges superior to the sweet wines of Spain, Italy, and Greece, and are by some considered as not inferior to Tokay.

Jurançon and *Gan*, both in the neighbourhood of Pau, in Bearn, furnish red and white wines that are greatly preferred to most which are produced in the same quarter of the country; the white Jurançon, in particular, being characterized by a delicate truffle-flavour: but they are surpassed by the white sweet muscadine of *Rivesaltes*, which is regarded by connoisseurs as one of the best liqueur-wines in Europe, and, when ten or twelve years old, may vie with the finest Malmsey.

In this very compendious report of the first part of the work before us, we have purposely refrained from touching on the numerous French wines of subordinate quality, with which the author has chosen to swell his descriptive catalogue; though it was already sufficiently protracted by his plan of recapitulating the names of places. If his commemoration of the inferior wines, however, be redundant, the information with which he furnishes us concerning some of the better kinds is occasionally deficient: at least, we should have attached more importance to his pages if he had more frequently particularized the qualities of the soil, the management of the plants, the modes of conducting the several vintages, the average sale-prices of the different wines, &c. In some few instances, he ventures to hazard an observation on the chemical constitution of certain wines; though his general reserve on this interesting department of his subject would induce us to believe that he is a stranger to some excellent communications by *Chaptal*, and others, on the scientific principles of vinification: as well as to an ingenious paper, by Mr. Brande, inserted in the Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London for 1811. The article *Vigne*, by *Dussieux*, in *Rozier*'s "Course of Agriculture," might also have been consulted with great advantage. — In his hasty explanation of *tannin*, in a note, the author convinces us that the figure of speech called a *bull* is not confined to Ireland. 'This substance,' says he, 'contained in oak-bark, and which effects the tanning of leather, exists in a greater or less quantity in *all* wines, and such of them as contain *none* of it are not susceptible of being clarified by the fining process.'

M. Jullien's second part presents us with a very superficial view of the vinous products of the other quarters of the globe: but his rapid notices are rather lame and scanty than incorrect; and, as they contain little that is new or particularly alluring, we may safely permit them to rest in peace. — With the exception of some detailed passages, his performance partakes more of the nature of an index than of a treatise; or it resembles an almanac, which is adapted for consultation, rather than a consecutive history which requires and deserves a regular perusal. Yet through this and many much duller volumes *we* are doomed to toil; and, in the hope that, peradventure, M. Jullien may generously improve our hint, and deign to beguile the irksomeness of our calling by a glass of his pink Champagne, we honestly assure him that we would rather criticize his *wines* than their *topography*.

Art. III. *Merveilles et Beautés de la Nature en France, &c.; i. e.* The Wonders and Natural Beauties of France, or a Description of all that is most curious and interesting in that Country, in the Department of Natural History; as Grottos, Cascades, Springs, Mountains, Rocks, Torrents, Picturesque Views, &c. With Seven Engravings, and a Map. By G. B. Depping, Member of several Literary Societies. The Third Edition, revised and corrected. 2 Vols. 12mo. About 400 pages in each. Paris. 1816.

On some previous occasions, our attention has been solicited by M. Depping, who writes with too much celerity, and exercises his pen on subjects of too multifarious a nature, to permit us to rank him among the select few that work for immortality. He seems, however, to have attained a decent easiness of style that is not unsuitable to the general character of his writings; and, if he seldom excites emotions of sublimity or terror, or warms the heart with the glow of genuine sentiment, he rarely shocks taste by puerile conceits or extravagant painting. As a register of many singular and striking natural scenes and phænomena, these volumes may be consulted, if not with much profound instruction, yet with profit and entertainment. Some of their *wonders* and *beauties*, which have counterparts in almost every country, might have remained unnoticed without any serious injury to the performance; and readers who are minutely conversant with the topography of France may, probably, search the volumes in vain for descriptions of some objects which were unknown to the author. At the same time, in such a wide field of contemplation, it may be no easy task to fix on the particulars that may be deemed most worthy of distinct notice. In the present case, the author's honest aim has been to reduce, into a popular and interesting form, the descriptions of geographers, naturalists, and travellers; to enlarge or abridge them, as circumstances might require; to draw up many of his reports from personal observation; and to mould the contributions of his correspondents into unison with the rest of his materials. Since the appearance of the first edition, in 1811, he has prudently and candidly availed himself of the remarks of public and private critics; and he continues to invite the friendly and liberal suggestions of all competent judges.

The first section is occupied with a rapid general view of the soil, the vegetable, animal, and mineral productions, the waters and atmosphere, of France. The chapter on the soil, however, relates rather to certain geological features than to agricultural qualities and diversities of the land; to symptoms of extinct volcanos; to marine and fresh-water depositions; and to the disruption of hills; — phænomena by no means peculiar to the territory of France. The varieties and contrasts of the vegetable tribes, induced by comparative latitude, elevation of surface, &c. afford some interesting observations, and some striking notices of the progress of French horticulture and husbandry: while the catalogue of curious or useful mineral substances, and of mineral, thermal, intermittent, and subterraneous waters, is still more ample, though not sufficiently novel or detailed to call for any particular analysis. We apprehend that the due illustration of the animal department required more space than the author has allotted to it.

Under the article *Air*, we find some curious information concerning the *Mistral*, and other local winds, which occasionally prevail in the southern districts.

'We have all heard of the *mistral*, (mistraou,) a wind peculiar to Provence and Languedoc, and denominated *circiers* by the Latins. Piercing and impetuous, it contributes to the formation of hail, chills the fruits which have not acquired a certain size, and occasions diseases by the sudden change of temperature *; and we learn from various passages in the writings of antient authors, as Strabo, Pliny, and Seneca, that the case has always been the same in Provence. The cause of this wind is not yet distinctly ascertained: but we may presume that it descends from the glaciers of the Alps, and that some special impulse constrains it to remount the Rhône. Its impetuosity is remarkable †: it raises waves in the Rhône, and sometimes precipitates carriages into that river: it moves at the rate of nearly four leagues in an hour, and blows for four, seven, or nine days, successively, though sometimes it ceases in twenty-four hours; and its violence is reckoned proportionate to the quantity of rain which falls in the Cevennes and the Vivarais. In 1769 and 1770, it blew for fourteen months consecutively. It extends to a great distance; so that even the territory of Nice, notwithstanding the curtain which encompasses it, is not wholly screened from its effects. In the month of October, 1778, however, the mistral, having encountered obstacles in the clouds which it could neither dissipate nor divide, or in a contrary wind, did not reach beyond the Hieres islands: but this phænomenon is rare. In the places exposed to the mistral, *all* the trees are *much bent*, and we shall not, perhaps, find *one* that is *quite straight*; while the branches are all directed to the side opposite to the wind, and the roots to the side whence it proceeds, by which means the trees more forcibly resist it, and the branches are less easily broken. It has been generally observed that trees accommodate their constitution to the force of the wind; and that they keep a firmer hold of the ground in places in which it reigns with the greatest force. On the rock of Orgon are trees which resist upwards of eight pounds of wind; whereas, according to *Bouguer*, six pounds, in the other countries of France, suffice to tear them up by the roots. The sap, which the wind propels forwards, — the branches, which are scarcely ever disposed in a contrary direction, — and, lastly, the inclination of the tree, — all contribute to this greater resistance of the trees in the gorge of Orgon; it is true that they are there stunted by the force of the wind, but they oppose to it a resistance which it overcomes with difficulty. Yet, when the tree, in consequence of its growth, exposes more surface to its action, the wind ultimately prevails. ‡

'* *S. Papon*'s Travels in the Maritime Alps.'

'† *Saussure*'s Travels in the Alps, tom. vi. chap. lxxxv. 8vo. edition.'

'‡ Extracted from the manuscript observations of *Paul Lamanon*.'

'It has been remarked that, in western Provence, where the mistral rages more than elsewhere, the men also manifest more harshness of disposition. Is this the fault of that wind? The decision of the question is difficult, although some sensible persons answer it in the affirmative. Our condition would, however, be truly pitiable if vice were wafted to us by the wind; and, in that case, we ought to shun the mistral more than pestilential vapours.'

In the same chapter, some instances are quoted of the occurrence of the *Mirage*, or the reflection of objects by the condensed vapours of the atmosphere, in the south of France. Section ii. proceeds to indicate and describe the particular natural curiosities of the country, in the order of its several departments, commencing with the sandy downs of Picardy: but they seem in no respect to differ from those of some of our own shores. The floating islands of Clairmarais remind us of those on Derwent-water; and *Albert's Cavern*, as well as many more natural excavations which are particularized in the course of the work, may not unaptly be represented by some of the subterraneous *wonders* in the Peak of Derbyshire, or other calcareous countries. A similar remark will apply to various articles of M. Depping's catalogue, as cascades, petrifying or intermittent springs, rocking stones, basaltic columns, &c. We deem it advisable to state these circumstances, from no desire of depreciating the author's labours, but to vindicate our apparent neglect or omission of many passages to which both he and his countrymen may attach no ordinary degree of importance. His picture of the banks of the Seine is agreeably enlivened by a few historical or romantic allusions, obviously enough suggested by the abbey of Jumièges, and other scenes. The imposing title of *Burning Mountain* merely refers to some strata of coal in the state of spontaneous combustion. — The scaling of *Mont Perdu*, undertaken and accomplished by M. *Ramond*, is given in the somewhat inflated language of that enterprizing naturalist: but the ascent of the *Pic du Midi of Pau* is not, it should seem, less formidable.

'This mountain is so high, and so difficult to climb, that few persons have ventured to reach the top of the Peak. The historian *De Thou* makes mention of a seigneur of Candale, who, in 1582, commenced this undertaking: but, notwithstanding the ladders, grappling-hooks, ropes, and the furred cloak, with which he was provided, he did not attain the summit. A shepherd of the valley of Aspe, without all these accommodations, animated and supported merely by his courage, set foot on the top; and, following his example, M. *Delfau* has effected the same expedition. From the village of Eaux-bonnes, the route lies by Gabas, of which the environs furnish the finest firs of the Pyrénées. The

base of the mountain is easily scaled, but, farther up, the
becomes so steep that nothing but an extraordinary deg
courage can prevent any person from being petrified with d
at this rapid ascent; and the more because the mountain,
insulated, forms only a single block, which rises to the hei
fifteen hundred and fifty-seven toises. The summit is di
into two sharp spires, from which circumstance it has been
the *Peak of the Twin Sisters.* The mountain is cut perpe
larly on three sides, which are inaccessible, the fourth
being practicable: but still the adventurer must have recou
his knees, feet, and hands, in order to arrive at the top. M
fau's narrative is little calculated to encourage future tra
to imitate his example. "I remained fixed," says he, "t
same spot; I was exhausted, and quite overcome with col
fatigue: I walked barefooted for two hours; my stocking
spatterdashes were in tatters; my body was bruised all ov
found myself almost destitute of clothes in a frozen atmosp
a chill pervaded my system, and my strength was giving
What would I not, at this instant, have given that I had
visited the Pyrénées! but it was too late. All on a sudde
heard the noise of a troop of Chamois above our heads. Al
at our approach, these animals ran about this way and tha
knowing how to shun us; one of them, which seemed to b
leader of the band, advanced to reconnoitre us, and afte
appeared to consult with his companions. In any other situ
we should have contemplated this spectacle with pleasure
for the moment, I was exclusively occupied with the thoug
my safety; and, apprehensive that these animals might, by ru
headlong, strike against us in the narrow pass in which we
involved, I clung fast to the rock that I might not be tu
down. At length the signal was given; they all sprang off
loud noise; and I saw them dart like lightning into narrow
and precipices, the very sight of which made me shudder.
was their fleetness that our eyes could scarcely follow them."

From the same interesting recital, which appears to
been published by itself, we could have welcomed either
copious extracts or a summary of the principal results; be
this detached height has been rarely surmounted, an
Delfau's arduous journey may probably form a val
supplement to those of *Ramond* and *Saussure.*

M. Depping describes the *Fountain of Vaucluse* at con
able length, and from the best authorities: but it is the
of every traveller who has directed his steps to the
The volcanic territories of the Vivarais, Velay, and Auve
also afford abundant scope for the exercise of the au
talents in compilation and description; these countries
sessing much intrinsic romantic beauty, combined with
gical phænomena of somewhat rare occurrence in Eu
but we must limit our notice to one or two particulars.

Giants' Causeways, of various dimensions and arrangements, with craters of extinct volcanos, and antient currents of lava, are here superadded to the striking and picturesque physiognomy of mountains and vallies. Some of the most remarkable exhibitions of basaltic ranges are those of the volcano of Chenávari, of the bridge of Bridon, and those which have been observed between the last-mentioned place and the port of Rigaudel.

'The finest spectacle, however, is reserved for the termination of the journey. It is near Antraigues that we meet with the most beautiful colonnades, accompanied by the most curious collateral circumstances. The scene unfolds itself to view on the banks of the Volant, at the foot of the hill of La Coupe, and its platform presents a magnificent pavement. Nothing can be more agreeable than to see a hill, in the form of a truncated cone, rising behind the colonnade: but the greatest curiosity of all is a current of lava, which, commencing at the top of the hill, descends to the basaltic causeway, the prisms rising behind one another to form a junction with the current. Such an appearance no longer permits us to doubt that the colonnade has originated in the lava of La Coupe. On the top of the mountain, we still behold the crater which had ejected these volcanic matters, and may even descend into it. In the midst of the puzzolanas and calcined lavas with which it is filled, has risen a grove of chesnut trees, prospering beyond all expectation, in a soil formerly devoted to destruction and sterility.

'The banks of the Vignon present us with the counter-part of those of the Volant, Mont Jeaujac taking the place of La Coupe. This crater has, in like manner, discharged a stream of lava, with which are connected beautiful colonnades, still more considerable than those of La Coupe. Here may be seen prisms, of fifty feet in height, some of them undivided in their length, others jointed, and others contorted; and these colonnades are prolonged even to Ardèche. On the borders of this river, the volcano of La Gravenne has thrown up two enormous streams of lava, one of which has covered the valley of Thueys, and the other that of Montpesat. The colonnades extend from these two market-towns, over a space of many leagues, all the way to Ussel: the fine chesnut-trees, which rear their heads among these basalts, recalling to mind the volcanized soil of Etna. Such phænomena are infinitely multiplied in the territory of Vivarais.'

The *Red Rock*, as it is usually denominated, particularly invites the examination of the geological student, because it displays the uncommon appearance of a rock of black lava emerging from masses of granite.

Dauphiny, also, is rich in grand and picturesque landscapes, as well as in remarkable natural productions. The rock-crystals of that territory, in particular, have been long celebrated: but the access to some of the most valuable mines of this article, especially to that of the *Grande Cristallière*, is described as both arduous and perilous; and the working of its many and beautiful geodes has consequently been abandoned. The *Grotto of Notre Dame de la Balme* is another object of curiosity: but, like the Fountain of Vaucluse, it has been often visited and described. M. *Bourrit* had the courage to swim across the subterraneous lake in this cavern, with a light adapted to such a singular expedition: but his intrepidity was rewarded by no uncommon discoveries.

In the department of the Doubs, an extraordinary intermitting spring, (called the *Round Fountain*,) the *Grotto of Oselle*, the *Source of the Loue*, and the *Fall of the Doubs*, will agreeably detain the reader's attention, and conduct him to the *Natural Ice-house*, at six leagues from Besançon. Of late years, the quantity of ice formed in this chilly cavern has been considerably diminished by the removal of many of the shady trees at the entrance, and by detaching masses for the table. Yet congelation of the water, that oozes through the calcareous rock, daily takes place, even in the middle of summer, and is exhibited in the two-fold form of stalactites and incrustations. The presence of nitre in the soil, which had formerly been alleged as the cause of this phænomenon, is denied by M. Depping; who is rather inclined to ascribe it to the depth of the cavern, to its northern exposure, and to the circumstance of its being concealed in a forest. In the same neighbourhood, three similar natural excavations have been observed, but in these the congelation proceeds on a more contracted scale.

The *Puits de la Brême*, at a league from Ornans, and encircled by rocks and woods, though very deep, discharges during a season of heavy rains a prodigious quantity of water, accompanied by stones, and by such a multitude of *graylings* as to stock the river Loue with that species of fish. — The course of the Ain is minutely traced, but with less picturesque effect than with regard to the stations most calculated to fix the attention of the traveller, or the draughtsman. — The *Fountain of Siros*, or the *Perpetual Torrent*, is a most powerful and abundant spring, which constantly discharges about eighteen cubic feet of very limpid water; and to its subterranean channels, as indeed to most of those within the range of the Jura mountains, trouts resort in great numbers.

'Between Haguenau and Wissembourg is a mine of asphaltus, or black bitumen, which has been discovered in the *Pechelbrunn*, or Pitch-fountain, that flows from a meadow in the environs of Lampertslock. It is a well, fifty feet deep, the surface covered with a black bitumen, which diffuses to a distance a disagreeable odour: its water, which is always dirty and muddy, contains muriate of soda, sulphate of iron, and sulphur. For a long time past, it has had the reputation of curing cutaneous eruptions; and the peasants sometimes drink it as a preventive of disorders. A naturalist, who had the curiosity to empty this well, with the view of ascertaining the source that furnishes the bitumen, found at the bottom only a bed of very pure yellow pyrites; which induced him to conjecture that this bed furnishes, to the argillaceous and vegetable earths of which it is the support, a sulphuric acid, which, by mingling with them, forms the bitumen of the well. The oak-timber, taken from the well, is black and hard, like ebony; and that which is at the bottom indicates an incipient transformation into agate. The sand-beds, in a neighbouring pit, are so impregnated with bitumen that the sand, like snow, may be formed into balls. * Above the Pechelbrum, a light has often been observed; which, gradually increasing in lustre and dimensions, at length assumes the appearance of a pan of burning coals. When the air is calm, the flame gradually diminishes, and finally vanishes entirely: but, when the wind blows fresh, the flame, yielding to the agitation of the air, darts above the meadow, and is driven either eastward, on the road, or westward, into a wood, where it is heard to strike forcibly one tree after another. This fact is very extraordinary, and yet a naturalist, worthy of credit, has often witnessed it. The progressive motion of the flame greatly alarmed the neighbouring peasants, especially when they were obliged to pass near the apparition, which they called the *Hunter;* and which, according to tradition, was the ghost of an antient seigneur of that country, who expiated in this form his tyranny over his dependants. Such a tradition should be preserved among the seigneurs rather than among the peasants.

'From ten to twelve pounds of bitumen may be daily collected in this well; though in summer the produce is more abundant than in winter. When the quantity is small, and the sun shines on the well, these oils present all the brilliant colours of the rainbow, or prism: they shade into one another, and are veined like alabaster; whence we may infer that, if they were diffused on hard and petrifying tufas, they would communicate to them the veined appearance of marble.

'In digging a drain near this well, the veins of bitumen, or asphaltus, were gradually revealed. The mine of this substance is of vast extent, since it is observed for six leagues round. Four layers or beds of the matter have been discovered, one immediately over the other; and perhaps more are beneath them. The bitumen is renewed and continues to flow in the old workings that are choaked with sand and other rubbish; its tendency being exclusively in an upward direction.

'A grease for the lubrication of wheels is obtained by the sim-

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'* *De Gensanne, Hist. Natur. de la prov. du Languedoc, t. 4. discours prélim.*'

ple process of boiling the sand of this pit for an hour in water, when the grease floats on the surface, and the white sand falls to the bottom of the pan. From the rock and red earth is extracted a black oil, which is genuine petroleum.'

M. Depping would have enhanced the value of his account of the waters of Plombières if he had mentioned their chemical composition, and had stated the nature of the complaints which they are supposed to alleviate or remove. — It should seem that the honest Germans, about a century ago, were accustomed to pass the whole day immersed in these waters up to the chin: in which attitude they took their meals, and conversed with one another, retiring from the liquid element only on the approach of evening.

St. Peter's Mountain, near Maëstricht, forms an article of considerable length, and is calculated to awaken the curiosity of those who have never seen or heard of it: but, as we formerly reported *Faujas de Saint Fond's* Natural History of this extraordinary spot, (a work from which the present author has principally derived his information,) we deem it very unnecessary to recur to the subject. *

The Lake of Geneva, Mont Dole, Mont Blanc, and their accompanying scenery, are pourtrayed with more or less felicity: but the last-mentioned mountain is defrauded of its due proportion of consideration.

M. Depping has allotted the concluding chapter to rational explanations of pretended wonders and supernatural appearances: but the immediate causes of most of them are too obvious to have required any formal solution. We shall indulge, however, in one extract more, which can scarcely fail to attract the reader's attention:

> 'The vaults of the Franciscan and Dominican monks of Toulouse were formerly regarded as a wonder, and almost as a miracle. Every traveller went to visit, with sacred horror, the corpses which were there exhibited as the well-preserved relics of another age; and they came away with the persuasion of having seen excavations which repelled corruption from human bodies. This error long maintained its ground, from respect to the situation: but physical and chemical science has at length betrayed it to the public. These corpses, which I admit to be objects of great curiosity, were taken from the graves of the church and the cloisters of the convents in which they had been buried: where the lime, slaked during the building of the churches, had acted on them to such a degree as to deprive them of all their volatile particles, and to reduce a body of a hundred and fifty pounds weight to twelve pounds. M. *de Puymarin*, who weighed many of them, found none exceeding that amount; so that a hundred and thirty-eight pounds had disappeared, without depriving the body of its

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* See Rev. Vol. xli. N. S. p. 459.

form*, leaving dust impressed with the human figure; the intestines caught fire, and were flexible as tinder; and the brain was reduced to a powder, like saw-dust,—a singular transformation of the once thinking part of these bodies. The countenance, however, still preserves all its characteristic features. On several, the expression of the passions is visibly depicted; while on others the contraction of the muscles exhibits a hideous grin. *Maupertuis*, in the last year of his life, often visited these vaults, as if to court familiarity with death; and he alleged that these mummies were apparently laughing at the living. A physician, attracted by curiosity, was so suddenly affected with the sight of the body and countenance of his father, who had died thirty years before, that he almost expired on the spot: which recalls to my recollection an anecdote that I once read in an old manuscript belonging to the Parisian library. As a party of Gray Friars of Toulouse were talking about ghosts and the spirits of the departed, one of their number boldly assured them that he would forthwith go down, without a light, into the vaults in which the dead bodies were kept. It was agreed that he should make the experiment; and down he went, with a knife, which he promised to fix in the ground at the end of the vault. They waited for his return, but the evening passed away without his re-appearing; and, on descending with lights, the friars found their brother stretched dead on the floor. Instantly, they proclaimed a miracle: but, on closer inspection, they perceived that the deceased was attached to the ground by his garments, and were at no loss to divine the manner of his death. Having stooped to put his knife in the ground, he had unconsciously transfixed his gown, in the dark: when he attempted to rise, he felt himself detained; and his mind being, at that moment, filled with all the stories which he had heard about ghosts, he no doubt fancied that one of the dead was punishing him for his temerity, was seized with horror, and died from fear.'

That this story, whether true or apocryphal, is recorded in a manuscript preserved in the library at Paris, we presume not to deny: but we have heard it referred to a city very remote from Toulouse.

We are unwilling to dismiss this publication from our table without suggesting that, as it particularizes many scenes and phænomena beyond the ordinary tracks of travelling, it may form a desirable supplement to the itineraries, guides, and post-books, which are now so liberally provided for the accommodation of Mr. John Bull, in his visits to the other side of the Herring-pond.

' * *De Puymarin, Details Chimiques et Observations sur la Conservation des Corps qui sont déposes aux Caveaux des Cordeliers et des Jacobins de Toulouse,* dans le tome 3. des *Mémoires de l'Académie de Toulouse.*'

purpose of taking into consideration the following questions, the impatient and peremptory style of which discloses at once the quarter from which they originated.

'1.— *Questions relating to the Church in general.*

'Is the government of the church arbitrary? Can the Pope refuse to interfere in spiritual affairs, on pretence of motives founded on temporal considerations?

'It is beyond dispute that, for some time past, the pontifical office has been limited to a small number of families; and that the affairs of the church are examined and transacted by a few prelates and divines appointed from the narrow limits of the environs, and who have not the means of knowing properly the great interests of the church. In this state of things, is it necessary to call a general Council?

'Ought not the Consistory, or Pope's privy-council, to be composed of prelates of all nations, to afford his Holiness the requisite information?

'Supposing it agreed that no necessity exists for making changes in the present organization, does not the Emperor combine in his person the rights formerly vested in the Kings of France, the Dukes of Brabant, and other sovereigns of the Netherlands, the Kings of Sardinia, the Dukes of Tuscany, &c. as well for the nomination of Cardinals as for other branches of prerogative?

'2.— *Questions relating to France in particular.*

'Has his Majesty the Emperor, or have his ministers, infringed the *Concordat?*

'If the French government has not violated the *Concordat*, can the Pope refuse institution to the Archbishops and Bishops who are nominated, and thus ruin religion in France as he has ruined it in Germany, which has been without bishops for ten years?

'The French government not having infringed the *Concordat*, his Majesty intends to consider it as annulled if the Pope refuses to execute it: but, in this case, what is proper to be done in behalf of religion? His Majesty addresses this question to prelates equally distinguished for their knowlege of religion and for their attachment to his person.

'3.— *Questions relating to the existing State of Things.*

'His Majesty, who may justly consider himself as the most powerful Christian in the rank to which Providence has raised him, would feel his *conscience uneasy*, if he did not pay some attention to the complaints of the German churches respecting the destitute state in which the Pope has left them for the last ten years. His Majesty conjures his Holiness to restore order in these churches. The Archiepiscopal Prince-Primate has again addressed representations to him on this head. If the Pope continues, from temporal motives or sentiments of personal animosity, to leave these churches in their present ruined and forlorn condition, his Majesty, as liege-lord of Germany, heir of Charlemagne, true Emperor of the West, and Eldest Son of the Church, wishes to know what conduct he ought to pursue in order to restore the benefits of religion to the inhabitants of Germany?

'It is necessary to make a new nomination of Bishops in Tuscany and other countries. If the Pope refuses to co-operate in these arrangements, what steps ought his Majesty to take to regulate them?

'The annexed Bull of Excommunication has been printed, posted up, and circulated clandestinely throughout Europe. What measures must be taken to prevent the Popes, in times of trouble and calamity, from carrying to excess powers equally contrary to Christian charity and the independence and honour of the throne?'

The answers to these questions are given (p. 104. *et seqq.*) at great length, and are marked, in course, by an eagerness to please the man on whom depended the hopes and prospects of the reverend members of the ecclesiastical council. *Bonaparte* claimed the right not only of nominating to bishoprics and archbishoprics, but of making the Pope, whether willing or unwilling, confer his pontifical sanction on these nominations within a prescribed time. To support these and other peremptory demands, his Generals were directed first to threaten the Pope, and eventually to eject him from all his possessions. Affairs had accordingly become very serious before the appointment of the next committee of French dignitaries, which took place in January, 1811; when the discussions in question had assumed a threatening aspect, his Holiness having now been forcibly removed from Rome, and confined as a close prisoner at Savona, near Genoa. On this occasion, our diplomatic acquaintance, *De Pradt*, was added, in his capacity of Archbishop of Mechlin, to the number of the members; and he behaved, we strongly suspect, in a manner more creditable to him as a courtier than a conscientious son of the church. Fortunately, however, the commission included some individuals of a sympathizing stamp, as may be collected from the following extracts of letters written to one of the French ministers from Savona, to which place several of these members had proceeded on a deputation to his Holiness:

'*Savona*, 17*th May*, 1811.

'Our progress, since we wrote the letter which we had the honour of addressing to your Excellency two days ago, has been very slow, and it seems now to be clear that we shall not obtain our object. — His Holiness always repeats that, excepting the provisional powers in question, he cannot take a step farther without having his liberty and the restoration of his counsellors: affirming not only that he stands in need of them for advice on a proceeding so new and important, but that the interest and honour of the church do not permit him to take on himself alone so heavy a responsibility. We have withdrawn our opposition to the Pope's resolution on this point, because he has told us repeatedly that he had rather wear out his life in a prison.—*Detrusus in carcerem.*

'Last night, we intimated to him the obligation under which we are compelled to set out on our return on Sunday evening, or Monday morning.'

'*Savona*, 18*th May*, 1811.

'The intimation of our departure, as we had the honour of mentioning to your Excellency yesterday, has produced good effects. This morning, the *Prefet* considerably promoted the reflections of the night by speaking to the Pope with mildness and firmness on his situation, and on the present and future interests of the Holy See, as well as of the churches of France and Italy; so that our last conference, which took place very soon after the *Prefet's* visit, is the one from which we are authorized to entertain the greatest hopes. It is true that these expectations do not amount to a full and complete adoption of the two conditions demanded, and consequently to the definitive conclusion of a treaty or *Concordat* in virtue of the full powers vested in us by his Majesty. In fact, we scarcely mentioned this morning the demand of a written promise to do nothing contrary to the Declaration of 1682; for the Pope continued, and probably will continue to the last, to say that the first article would produce no difficulty if it stood alone, but that, with regard to the three others, although it was his express intention not to act in opposition to them, it would not be at all proper for the Holy See to enter into a written engagement to that purpose.

'Our conversation during this interview was directed almost entirely to the Canonical Institution of the Bishops. We have all been, if possible, more earnest than formerly in representing to the Pope the fatal consequences, to the Holy See, of his refusing to adopt the clause in question; the approaching decision of the Council, after which no remedy could be expected; and the condescension of his Majesty in sending us, or rather in allowing us to come, a condescension which will not be repeated.

'His Holiness read again in our presence the letter of Cardinal *Fesch*, which was lying on his table, and to which he more particularly directs his answer. We commented, confirmed, insisted, &c. More than once he appeared extremely pensive and affected: he is always kind, always affable, always guided by his conscience, from which he will on no account depart, but which now seems more approximating to our wishes than formerly.

'We left the Pope on his saying that his attention was fatigued, but that he hoped to be more able to attend to us in the evening; so that we shall return at as early an hour as we can. On taking leave of us, he appeared rather mortified that our departure should be fixed for to-morrow (Sunday) evening: but we have consented to put it off to Monday morning, and even to Tuesday, if we should conceive any hope of his yielding to our demands.'

'*Savona*, 19*th May.*

'We have just left his Holiness, and the few moments that remain before the departure of the courier do not allow us to enter into long details with your Excellency respecting our conferences of the last night and this morning.

'Yesterday, we found the Pope tolerably well disposed, and we took that opportunity to make him accept different articles relative to the Canonical Institution and the additional clause which we required. By degrees, this idea has become more familiar to him, and every day we have perceived some favourable shades of difference. We took up the pen, and drew out a sketch of what we hoped to bring him to accept. This morning we made out a fair copy in French, and presented it to him. He desired to alter it in some respects, adding a few phrases and correcting others: but the result was altogether better than we expected some days ago. We are going to transcribe the whole, and shall leave a copy with him this evening, when we shall take our leave, and ask his blessing on our return. We shall also have the honour of addressing a duplicate to your Excellency, which shall be sent to-morrow by express. We set out early in the morning, by the road from Acqui to Alessandria; and, in order to prevent our meeting with any difficulty from requiring too many horses, the Bishop of Faenza will go by Genoa.'

Last Letter from the Episcopal Deputies, on their Return from Savona, to the French Minister for Ecclesiastical Affairs.

'*Paris, 6th June,* 1811.

'Your Excellency will have seen, in our former letters, the gradations by which we have brought the Pope to consent to the insertion of an additional clause in the Concordats of France and Italy. This is a great step towards an entire reconciliation, since by it the Pope gives up the dilatory practices employed by himself, and by his predecessors under Louis XIV. and in the beginning of the regency of the Duke of Orleans.

'By this concession, an end is put to the plausible pretexts for the delay of Bulls and the non-execution of the Concordats. The anxiety which the Pope has shewn, since our departure, is a natural consequence of the seclusion in which he is kept from all those whom he might wish to consult on affairs of such importance to the Holy See and the Church in general. His conscience is scrupulous and pure; of which indeed it is impossible to doubt, after having had the honour of conversing with him so often and so familiarly as we have been enabled to do: but he is alone, abandoned to his own reflections, and deprived of the information which he might obtain from his books, or from confidential communication with those whom he has been accustomed to love and respect. Besides, the points proposed to him are so new to the Holy See, and so different from the lofty ideas in which he has been educated, that it is not surprizing to see him return at times to his old notions. Even his fluctuations are a proof of the rectitude of his intentions, and of the pain which he feels when endeavouring to reconcile what he considers as his duty with the sacrifices which we try to induce him to make.

'The freedom with which the Pope discussed our demands, comparing them with principles which seemed to him indisputable, — the continued affection which he manifested towards us, though we were often in contradiction to him, — and the sensible progress

progress which we made in persuading him, during the few days which were allowed us to converse with him, — have completely proved that, if he had been granted a shadow of liberty and a few persons to consult, it would have been easy to bring him to conciliatory and definitive conclusions on several points.'

We close our extracts by laying before our readers the substance of the arrangement concluded in September, 1811, between the Pope and the Ecclesiastical Council of France: —

'Art. I. Agreeably to the holy canons, the Archbishoprics and Bishoprics cannot remain vacant longer than one year, within which time the Nomination, Institution, and Consecration shall be fully and completely executed.

'II. The Council shall petition the Emperor to continue, in virtue of the Concordat, to nominate to the vacant sees; and the Bishops named by the Emperor shall have recourse, in the usual form, to the Sovereign Pontiff, to obtain Canonical Institution.

'III. Within six months after the notification being given, in the usual form, to the Sovereign Pontiff, his Holiness shall grant the Institution agreeably to the Concordat.

'IV. If his Holiness shall not have granted the Institution by the end of the six months, the Metropolitan shall do this in his stead; and, on his failure, the eldest Bishop in the Ecclesiastical Province, who shall also give the Institution in similar circumstances in the case of a Metropolitan.

'V. The present Decree shall be submitted to his Holiness for his approbation; for which purpose, his Majesty the Emperor and King shall be humbly petitioned to grant permission to six Bishops to repair to his Holiness, to request him respectfully to confirm a decree which presents the only means of remedying the disorders of the churches of France and Italy.'

The great deficiency of this book is the want of a few explanatory paragraphs on the part of the editor. In its present state, it is nothing more than a string of documents; and the reader is left to wade through page after page, composed in the tedious and formal style of diplomacy, in quest of that information which a writer familiar with the subject might have given in a few sentences. With some connecting passages of this nature, and the omission of the more verbose documents, the collection might have been rendered attractive to the public at large: but now it is interesting only to clerical readers; or to the very small number of serious students who are contented, for the sake of information, to dissect and arrange the materials that are scattered through a series of memorials and official letters.

Art.

Art. V. *Christoph Martin Wieland geschildert*, &c.; *i. e. Christopher Martin Wieland* delineated, by J. G. Gruber. Vol. I. 8vo. pp. 375. Leipzig.

Some persons are to be found in every land, whose individual progress resembles that of the community. Starting into life with the average culture of the better classes of their countrymen, able to keep pace with the course of literature and of events, attentive to surrounding Nature, and using acute powers of observation and reflection to the last, they undergo personally the same series of changes as the public mind itself, represent all throughout the spirit of the whole, and leave off where they leave their country. Of such men the lives are peculiarly instructive; they form an epitome of the general history; a nation reads its own memoirs in their annals: like delicately suspended needles, they enable others to steer, and indicate the invisible magnetic currents of a world.

Wieland was a being of this class; and, independently of his eminence, fertility, and beauty as a writer, he deserves notice as the ready pupil of all the coëval philosophy. By the calm wisdom of his disinterested philanthropy, he had insensibly acquired the confidence of the entire party of continental *liberalists*, whether writers or statesmen. The genius of Europe visited in his book-room, and delivered oracles from the lips of his bust: hostile sovereigns became competitors for his approbation; and Napoleon and Alexander equally courted his sanction of their views. Raised by a voluntary and informal but efficacious and understood delegation into the papal chair of philosophy, he almost swayed nations by the pure influence of preaching to them their real interests.

The works of *Wieland* have been progressively reported in our pages with considerable detail *: but some additional notices of his publications will easily and naturally find a place in this article.

We have now to record that the death of this celebrated writer took place on the 20th of January 1813; and to open for our readers that literary mausoleum, with which M. Gruber has encircled his remains. The work, perhaps, is as much an essay on the genius and writings of *Wieland* as a biographical memoir: but it contains every requisite circumstance of his formal history and familiar habits. Its author had known *Wieland* during the last eight years of his life; had assisted under him in some periodical publications; had attracted his favourable opinion; and, at his own solicitation, received from him several particulars of his early years, for the purpose of their being used in a biographical memoir. The memorandums so made perished in the bombardment of Wittenberg: but recollection, and the assistance of the family, have sufficed to replace the principal facts: two collections of *Wieland*'s correspondence, published by his sons in law, have farther contributed to the supply of authentic materials; and the ever-varying prefaces, which accompanied successive editions of the several works, have also furnished useful notices.

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* See Vol. xviii. p. 522.—Vol. xix. p. 481.—Vol. xxi. p. 490.—Vol. xxii. p. 506.—Vol. xxiii. p. 575.—Vol. xxvi. p. 481.;—and Vol. lxxvii. p. 537.

At Biberach in Swabia, *Christopher Martin Wieland* was born on the 5th of September 1733, in a parsonage-house called Holzheim, which his father inhabited near the Riess, a streamlet now become classical. Biberach is a free corporation-town, in which the Catholics and Lutherans have equal rights, and use the same church alternately; and *Wieland*'s father was the Lutheran minister. He undertook the entire education of his son, for which his studies at the University of Halle had qualified him: but, with the usual solicitude of parental affection, he bestowed too much toil on the pupil, began his lessons when the child was only three years old, and forced by this hot-house confinement a premature growth of knowlege.

The boy was admired as a prodigy, and in his seventh year was reading Nepos: but he had incurred the oppressed feeling of those who are not suffered to expand, had contracted a shy lonesomeness of disposition, and apparently wanted the activity, the readiness, and the spirit of competition which are possessed by boys who are accustomed to bustle through a crowd. In his thirteenth year, Virgil and Horace were his pocket-companions; he was already familiar with Cicero; and he had not only begun to make German verses, especially hymns, but had planned an epic poem on the Destruction of Jerusalem. The mystically pious turn of his father was giving to all his ideas a religious direction.

At the age of fourteen, he was first exposed to the conflicts of public and social education; being then sent to the high school at Klosterbergen, near Magdeburg, at that time superintended by the Abbot *Steinmetz*, whose reputation as a teacher was great, and whose evangelical tone accorded with the sentiments of *Wieland*'s father. In consequence of the popularity of this institution, especially in the Prussian states, the school-house had been lately enlarged: the discipline, also, had become unremitting; and devotional exercises formed a laborious part of the employment of the numerous pupils. The young *Wieland* here made a rapid progress in Greek, and grew remarkably fond of Xenophon, whose Cyropœdia was the study of his class: but he took less part than others in the sports of his school-fellows, their play-ground being to him rather a show than an arena. *Adelung*, afterward the celebrated glossologist, was one of the scholars with whom he formed a permanent friendship. During his leisure-hours, he applied to English literature, and read the *Spectator* and Shaftesbury's *Characteristics*. All-curious, too, at this time, he peeped into some libertine books, but felt compunction after the indulgence. Indeed his conscientiousness was extremely sensible, whatever were his topics of self-reproach: "how often," he says, "I almost bathed in tears of contrition, and wrung my hands sore; I would fain but could not fashion myself into a saint."

When seventeen years old, *Wieland* left school, and passed some months at Erfurt with a relation named *Baumer*; who gave him instructions, and advised him, as his lungs were weak, to abandon the intention of taking orders and to study the law. In the year following he returned home, and obtained the reluctant permission of his father to prepare for college on this new plan.

Sophia von Gutterman, the daughter of a physician at Augsburg, a young lady of beauty and intellect, was now staying at Biberach, and visited at the house of *Wieland*'s father. Two or three years older than this youth, who was still treated as a school-boy, and debarred by a specific engagement from any prospect of alliance with him, she saw neither danger nor impropriety in walking out frequently with a lad whose talents and accomplishments she could discern and appreciate: but *Wieland* fell enthusiastically in love with her. One Sunday, when his father had been preaching from the text *God is love*, he accompanied Sophia after service into the fields; said that he thought a warmer discourse might have been inspired by the topic; and began to declaim in a rhapsodical phraseology, recollected or modified from Plato's dialogues. "You may imagine," says *Wieland*'s own narrative, "whether I spoke coldly when I gazed in her eyes, and whether the gentle Sophia heard unpersuaded, when she looked benignly at me. In short, neither of us doubted the rectitude of my system: but Sophia expressed a wish, probably because she thought that my delivery was too lyrical, that I would put down my ideas in writing. As soon as I left her, I was at my desk, and endeavoured to versify my theory." The fruits of this enthusiastic stroll were the lines intitled *The Nature of Things*, which form a conspicuous part of *Wieland*'s first publication; the poem was dilated afterward, but the substance originated at the time mentioned.

Term now drew nigh; Sophia was returning to her friends; the Platonic lovers separated; and *Wieland* proceeded in 1751 to the college at Tubingen, a cheap and not a celebrated university. The professors did not attract his attention, and he shut himself up in his room and wrote verses. While a student there in 1752, he printed his earliest volume of poems, which are chiefly didactic: *The Nature of Things*, the *Anti-Ovid*, the *Moral Epistles*, and some *Sacred Stories*, being of the number. As they were adapted to the state of the reading world at that period, and superior to the extant German poetry of the same kind, they excited some sensation, which has since diminished.

At Tubingen, *Wieland* also began an epic poem in Ossianic prose, intitled *Arminius, or Germany freed*, which has been translated into English. He sent the MS. of the first five cantos of this epopea, without his name, to *Bodmer*, the conductor of an eminent Swiss Review, soliciting the critical opinion of this literary patriarch; who thought well of the specimen; and, having shewn it to *Hagedorn* and others, who corroborated his judgment, he printed a complimentary acknowlegement to his unknown correspondent. *Wieland* then named himself; and *Bodmer* invited the young genius to pass the vacation at his house near Zurich. He complied with the proposal, in October 1752, and beheld the dwelling of *Bodmer* adapted for a temple of the Muses. Situated at the foot of a hill, between the town and the country, it was retired without being lonely; a vineyard, bounded at top by fig-trees, rose at the back of the garden; the Uto glittered in front; and a magnificent landscape of city, lake, and mountain, embosomed the modest residence. To *Wieland* was assigned an apartment which *Klopstock*, already known to fame, had occupied in the year before. Within view, or a walk, were to be seen traces or ruins of the dwellings of *Owe*, *Warte*, *Husen*, and other poets of the Swabian period, who had founded the romantic literature of Germany; and whose manuscript-remains, collected and preserved by the care of *Rudiger Maness* of Zurich, were now about to be edited by *Bodmer*. Visits to and from the literary men of the neighbourhood varied the domestic circle, of which *Gesner*, the author of the Idyls, often formed a part: but *Breitinger*, a canon of Zurich, was the one of *Bodmer*'s friends who shewed most attention to *Wieland;* and, in a dedication addressed to them jointly, the latter has recorded an enduring sense of their kindness.

Bodmer, who had lost a wife and children, was glad of an habitual companion; and he could also employ the labour of *Wieland* profitably in critical animadversion, and contributions to periodical publications. Insensibly, the stay was prolonged, and arranged on a footing of mutual advantage. *Wieland*, quite in his element, and delighted with his new independence, dropped the project of returning to college, devoted himself wholly to the cares of authorship, and managed an extensive literary correspondence, which included the conspicuous names of *Haller*, *Gleim*, *Hagedorn*, *Gellert*, *Klopstock*, and *Sulzer*. His attachment to *Bodmer*, the author of his comforts, was signalized by a panegyrical analysis of the *Noah* of that writer, which displays less of the sagacity of justice than the partiality of friendship.

With *Bodmer* the great recipe for composition was to transplant from foreign writers all that he could employ in his native tongue. "My own talent for stealing," says *Wieland* jocosely in one of his letters, "was evolved and cultivated under him: there is much of the echo in my nature; and I never read a book with delight but that, for a long time afterward, my imagination was endeavouring to reproduce a similar plan of fable, or similar efforts at expression." One of his poetical works that was strongly tinctured with this imitative spirit was his volume of *Epistles from the Dead to the Living*, published in 1753; when he had just been reading Mrs. Rowe's *Friendship in Death*. Yet, if more of plagiarism than of invention be found in the matter, and if *Klopstock's* Elegies taught the style, it is by copying fine art that authors, like painters, may best learn to produce it. *Wieland's Trial of Abraham*, however, (published in 1755,) is an imitation of *Bodmer*'s manner in which the resemblance extends to the faults.—*Sympathies*, *Vision of a World of innocent Men*, *Hymns* in verse, and *Psalms* in prose, are other writings of this date; and, in the dedication prefixed, *Wieland* holds up to public animadversion some Odes of *Uz*, which he was destined afterward to outstrip in lascivious delineation. In some poetical epistle, *Uz* had ventured to yawn over the *Trial of Abraham*. *Gleim*, without any other provocation than his Anacreontics, was likewise chidden in the solemn tone of ecclesiastical displeasure; so completely was *Wieland* still an adherent of the ascetic morality and somewhat bigoted intolerance of *Bodmer* and his set. Indeed, those passages in the *Sympathies* which inveigh against the libertinisms of literature are too eloquent not to have been sincere; although, when stationed as an appendix to the later works of *Wieland*, they are read with the loud laugh of irony. 'He pities Petrarch, for speaking of his Laura with an idolatry to which no human excellence can be intitled from man; he laments that the sublime genius of Pindar had been squandered on the decoration of a heathen and profane mythology: and he adds that whoever did not consider indifference to religion as an honour was bound in duty infinitely to prefer the feeblest spiritual hymns of the ecclesiastical poets, to the seductive imagery of the finest odes of *Uz* or *Gleim*.' *Bodmer* was enraptured with this pious tone, and described *Wieland* in his Review as "protected by the seraph Eloa, who with sheltering wings scatters inspiration over him, and reaches to him a harp to which the souls of men and even the rolling spheres must listen."

In 1753, *Wieland* was invited by Professor *Müchler* to undertake some academic situation connected with the education of select noble pupils, and in consequence drew up a plan of the intended academy, which however was eventually relinquished: but the sketch was preserved among some fugitive pieces printed in 1758, and probably occasioned at a later period the idea of *Wieland* being made preceptor to the Duke of Saxe-Weimar. In the *Letters of Literature*, *Lessing*, who was the best prose-writer of the Germans, criticized this sketch, and censured the style of the author as redundant, finical, and overrun with Gallicism: the remark was not lost; a reformation ensued, and *Wieland's* first good prose may be dated from this wholesome severity.

In 1756 occurred the seven years' war of Germany, which gave importance to public opinion and to its literary heralds. The Catholic writers embraced the cause of Maria Theresa: but, as the Prussian monarch was an adherent and patron of the French free-thinking, an alliance insensibly took place between protestantism and philosophy, which liberalized the Prussian clergy, and shook the pillars of orthodoxy. The frequent idleness of the camps and garrison-towns formed a new set of readers; the mess-room became an important tribunal of literary appretiation; and books of amusement were multiplied in which a lascivious turn prevailed, and which were welcomed in the colleges as much as in the barracks. The desultory anarchy, also, which rendered literary success independent of any metropolitan verdict, favoured a variety and an originality of manner among the different writers, which baffled the rules of criticism, and often bestowed on caprice the laurel-wreath of genius. *Wieland*, in common with other Protestants, was a well-wisher to the cause of Frederic II., composed a loyal poem on *Wille's* statue of the King and gradually imbibed the cast of opinion that was prevalen among the Prussian writers: but he was principally occupied at this time about an epic poem, to be intitled *Cyrus*, which he began in German hexameters. With Xenophon for his ostensible guide, the court of Babylon was probably to have shadowed forth that of Vienna, and the hero to have represented Frederic the Great. After having completed five cantos, which were printed, the poet grew tired, and desisted and his readers have not much wondered or much grieved at his fatigue.

Already in 1754 *Wieland* had quitted his host in order to take separate lodgings, having felt some restraint from the perpetual interference of *Bodmer* with his employments; and being inclined to give private lessons in Greek to some pupils of family, whom he could not so well receive at the apartment of a friend. A band of players having come to Zurich in 1758, he attended the theatre with eagerness, formed an acquaintance with the manager *Ackerman*, was solicited by him for something new, and translated for him Rowe's *Lady Jane Gray.* The tragedy, which had been slightly altered, was suffered to pass as an original; it succeeded, and was printed; and it forms the first specimen of German drama in five-feet iambic blank verse: rimed Alexandrines having been hitherto employed, as in French tragedy. These players were proceeding to Berne; and, as *Wieland*, through the medium of his pupils, had the offer of a preceptorship there in the house of M. *Sinner*, he determined to leave Zurich. He next attempted, unsuccessfully, an original tragic drama, founded on the story of *Clementina of Poretta*, from *Sir Charles Grandison;* and another on the story of *Araspes and Panthea*, which was not accepted by the players, but was afterward expanded and published separately as a romance in dialogue. He was more fortunate in refashioning *Lesage's Pandora.* — At Berne, *Wieland* became personally known to Dr. *Zimmermann*, the author of the work on Solitude, with whom he corresponded; and he visited, perhaps from sensual motives, perhaps out of a mere literary curiosity, at the lodgings of *Julia Bondeli*, the acquaintance of *Rousseau;* to whose declining charms M. GRUBER ascribes the power of having occasioned in *Wieland* 'a more than friendly attachment.'

From Berne he was suddenly called in the year 1760 to his native city; the town-clerk-ship having become vacant, and the corporation of Biberach, without any solicitation on his part, having nominated *Wieland* to the office. The confidence of fellow-citizens is peculiarly flattering, because it reposes on long familiarity; and, as the situation offered if not a liberal yet an honourable independence, *Wieland* accepted the place, and undertook its laborious duties. His return to Biberach, however, was not free from disappointment. Sophia, to whose hand he might now have aspired, was become the wife of M. *Laroche*, a secretary of Count *Stadion*: many years had not elapsed before he discovered that the necessary duties of his office made grievous inroads on his leisure; and the inglorious comforts of competency appeared ill exchanged for the precarious earnings of literary publicity. In a letter dated 1763, he compares Biberach with San Marino; describes the triviality of those legal records which formed his morning task, and of those quadrille parties which his patrons expected him to join in the afternoon; laments that he is as much without society as Milton's Adam among the beasts of paradise; and adds that his only tolerable hours are those which he can snatch from business and from company to devote to composition. In one respect, however, this situation was of moral use; having no one on whom he could lean, he gradually acquired an upright and self-supported character. Hitherto, with the suppleness of a cameleon, he had too much imitated the hues of his acquaintance, and had cultivated the arts of ingratiation with some sacrifice of the dignity of independence: but he now first became himself; and his native tinge was slowly perceived to be very different from that which he reflected, or assumed, while in the circle of his Swiss connections.

A translation of Shakspeare was at this period the employment of *Wieland*'s leisure; and, between the years 1762 and 1766, he published (in eight volumes) the twenty-two principal plays. He seems to have used Pope's edition, and often leaves out the feeble passages there placed between dotted commas as supposed interpolations of the players. He received of the bookseller two dollars per sheet for the job. *Eschenburg* republished this version in 1775, with corrections, and added the fourteen omitted pieces.

At Warthausen, about three miles from Biberach, on an eminence which overlooks a valley stretching towards the Danube, stands a proud mansion belonging to the noble family of *Stadion*; and hither the old Count Frederic, now a widower, who had been Austrian ambassador to the court of George the Second, but was retiring from the exertions of public life, came in his seventieth year, at the close of 1763, to reside. ‹ With him dwelt his former secretary *Laroche*, to whom the stewardship of his Suabian manors was now intrusted; and *Laroche* was of course accompanied by his wife, the Sophia of *Wieland.* Indeed, they almost supplied the place of a son and daughter to the old Count, and were the companions of his table and the helpmates of his infirmity. Through the friendship of Sophia, *Wieland* was induced to visit often at Warthausen; and, finding her happy in the protection of a man of merit, and surrounded by amiable children, the fruits of a marriage of seven years, he soon acquiesced in that brotherly feeling which fate and nature (their grandmothers had been sisters) seemed to have predestined for the quality of their attachment. He was also made welcome by the old Count, who felt the value, in a rural solitude, of so accomplished a guest. An experienced courtier, who had long moved in the first circles of Europe, this nobleman was formed by exquisite politeness, by his ready talent and fund of anecdote, by his penetrating observation, and by those luxurious appendages which decorate the exterior of opulence, to make a strong and progressive impression on the young poet, to whom his conversation revealed a new and higher world. Still this impression had at first more of admiration than complacence. *Wieland*'s scheming philanthropy was often thwarted and chilled by the practical mistrust and sarcastic good sense of the Count and *Laroche*; his sentimental enthusiasm was made to collapse by many mortifying sneers; and he incurred something of that unwelcome flinch which the touch of egotism gives to benevolence. Under other names, *Wieland* paints the change which at this time his own mind was silently undergoing; and, where Agathon unwillingly discovers a sister in his beloved Psyche, and where the religious tenets in which he had been educated are combated by the arguments of an Epicurean, Count *Stadion* was sitting to him for *Hippias.*

In this circle, *Wieland* first acquired that tone of the great world, and that art of saying bold things with urbanity, which enabled him to become the classic of the gentlemen of Germany, and to lift up in courts the voice of freedom. Count *Stadion*'s library included the select literature of Europe, especially its modern philosophy; and he had himself deeply imbibed the spirit of an age that was intent on the overthrow of prejudice. In the fashionable world, laxity of principle is often professed for the sake of living among the licentious without offending their self-love; and so *Wieland* perceived in this family. The moral tolerance proclaimed to others was not needed as a personal apology; egotism was but the pretext for a luxury which acted as the handmaid of beneficence; morality was exercised without moroseness;

and

and the kind affections were indulged within the limits of the beautiful and the good.—The married daughters of Count *Stadion* came occasionally to visit at Warthausen. At these times, the Muses redoubled their efforts to enliven the family-circle; poems of *Wieland* yet in manuscript were read aloud for their amusement; and the story of *Diana and Endymion* is noticed as one of the pieces so rehearsed. It contains passages to which English ladies would hesitate at listening: but probably the poet knew where to skip: or perhaps in southern countries the married women less affect severity; and, at a time when the court of France gave the tone to Europe, and received it from Madame *de Pompadour*, the novels of *Crebillon* and the metrical tales of *Grecour* were to be found on fashionable toilettes. Certainly a loose cast prevailed in the literature of the times, which *Wieland* could imitate in his *Comic Tales* without forfeiting the suffrage of the genteel world. The ladies at Warthausen not only fancied poetry, but were remarkably fond of fairy-tales, and gave occasion to those studies which excited the composition of *Don Sylvio of Rosalva*, a novel printed in 1764. The *Ricciardello* of *Dumouriez*, also, a French translation from the Italian of *Fortiguerra*, had pleased in Count *Stadion*'s family, and probably suggested to *Wieland* his modern *Amadis*, which was not published until 1771. This burlesque epopea was successful, but has outlived its popularity: it appeared when the French writers had made a conquest of the taste of the German courts; and, by this accommodation of manner, *Wieland* gradually succeeded in regaining for Germany and the German language the patronage of its princes.

Laroche having a clerical friend named *Brechter*, for whom he wished to obtain some small piece of preferment, *Wieland* undertook to canvas in his behalf the corporation of Biberach, and obtained from the Mayor an appointment of his candidate. Some part of the corporation, however, soon became alarmed at the liberal or the heretical tone of *Brechter*'s preaching or conversation, and made formal representations to the Mayor, requiring that he should rescind the nomination. The strife became warm in the corporate body; some harsh and calumnious words were used; a sort of riot was threatened, to prevent *Brechter* from ascending the pulpit; and *Wieland*, in his official capacity, accompanied by the Mayor and peace-officers, led *Brechter* through the assembled congregation to the desk. This incident obliged *Wieland* to break with the orthodox party, with whom he had hitherto kept terms, but who now made some attempt, through the courts of law at Vienna, to deprive him of his official situation.

ation. The question, however, was decided in his favour about the close of 1764.—This affair is remarkable as having supplied the real basis of a narrative included in the *Abderites*; where, under Greek names, and with a most dexterous substitution of incidents that were probable under Greek institutions, much personal satire is levelled against the corporation of Biberach. Count *Stadion* took amiss some part of *Wieland's* conduct in these matters;—probably his courageous assertion of the independent rights of the corporation, over which the court of Vienna claimed some sovereignty; and *Wieland* says, in a letter dated 1766, "*Madame Laroche n'est plus ici: elle a suivi son mari et son maitre à Bonigheim, terre du Comte de Stadion: nous ne nous écrivons plus, parceque j'ai eu le malheur d'encourir la disgrace de son Excellence, en faisant mon devoir et rien de plus.*"

The year 1765 was allotted to the composition and completion of *Agathon*, the earliest work of *Wieland* to which he himself assigns a classical rank: it appeared in 1766. His previous productions he considers as juvenile efforts, made while his mind was yet in the progress of education, and he had prejudices to lose as well as principles to acquire: but, in the *Agathon*, his philosophy already appears systematized and mature; and his peculiar talent for psychological observation and mental anatomy is here advantageously displayed. In the intellectual progress of the hero, a secret history is given, under a Greek garb, of conflicts which had passed in the author's own soul.

In the autumn of 1765, *Wieland* married Miss *Hillenbrandt*, the daughter of a merchant at Augsburg; a lady more remarkable, it is said, for a pleasing person and for domestic virtues than for much accomplishment of mind. She looked up to her husband with a sort of worship, but is believed to have been very little versed in his writings. *Wieland* being somewhat choleric, and often provoked by little things into bursts of angry eloquence, his wife bore these explosions of temper with such gentle patience that any bystander was filled with real admiration; even *Wieland* himself usually changed sides before he had done raving, and turned his own zeal into ridicule:—many of his felicities of diction were thus struck out at a heat.

Idris and Zenide, a poem in the looser manner of *Ariosto*, occupied the author during the first months of his marriage: five cantos were printed, and five more were promised: but, like the four *Facardins* of Count *Hamilton*, this fairy-tale remains a fragment. The earliest classical production of *Wieland* in verse, his *Musarion*, was undertaken next: it narrates a philosophic conversation; and, of all didactic poems, it has most dramatic vivacity and grace of diction. It appeared in 1768.

In a letter to *Riedel*, dated 1765, *Wieland* mentions that he had hired a garden out of Biberach, having a summer-house which commanded a fine rural prospect. "Here," adds he, "I pass many afternoons with no other society than the Muses; and, when I rise for some minutes from my task, I snuff the odour of new-mown hay, or see the boys bathe, or watch the retters of flax. At a distance, I catch the church-yard in which the bones of my fathers and probably my own will one day repose together; or, in the rich confusion of the remoter landscape, I single out the new white castle of Horn, then sit down again, — and rime."

The second volume shall be considered in our next Appendix.

Art. VI. *Biographie des Hommes Vivans*, &c.; *i. e.* Biography of living Characters; or a Series of Sketches, in alphabetical Order, of the Lives of such Men of the present Day as have been made remarkable by their Writings or their public Conduct: a Work entirely new, and composed by an Association of literary Men. Vols. I. and II., from the beginning of A to the end of E. 8vo. pp. 1104. Paris. 1817.

Several years ago, we took occasion to notice with approbation (M. R. Vol. lxvi.) the first volume of a very extensive compilation intitled *Biographie Universelle*, the plan of which comprized biographical sketches of every age except the present. The performance before us is intended to supply that deficiency, and proceeds from the same publishers; who appear to have been successful in the former undertaking, the scale of which is now becoming so very large as to form, in all likelihood, forty closely printed octavos. The present work is of much smaller compass, and will probably be comprized in six volumes; the literary *collaborateurs* are, in a great measure, the same; and, as far as the political part is concerned, they do not scruple to borrow largely from the well-known *Biographie Moderne*, which we reported at considerable length in our lxxvth volume. The execution, where so many different persons are employed, is of course unequal, and it would be no difficult matter to point out a number of petty errors: but, comparing these volumes with the majority of others in the dictionary-form, we have no hesitation in giving them a respectable station, and in considering them as deserving a place on the shelves of those who have occasion to make frequent reference to the names of the leading political or literary men of the age. We shall enable our readers to form an opinion for themselves by making several extracts relative to characters of prominency; exhibiting them in successive classes or groupes; and beginning with a description of men now in the shade, but whose exploits have closely fixed the attention of all who have taken an interest in the extraordinary events of the times.

The French Generals. — We quote the following notice of a warrior who is now no more, but whose name will continue to be remembered among those of the more violent adherents of the revolutionary cause.

> ' *Augereau*, Duke of Castiglione, born in one of the suburbs of Paris in 1757, was the son of a fruiterer. After having served in France as a carabineer, he enlisted in the Neapolitan army, and acted as a common soldier till the year 1787: when he established himself as a fencing master in Naples, gave lessons to the Prince Royal, and was, in common with all his countrymen, sent out of the kingdom in 1792. He then entered as a volunteer into the French service, where his intelligence and boldness of character procured for him rapid promotion, and after the year 1796 rendered the events of his life familiar to the readers of news-papers. When *Bonaparte*, on his progress to the isle of Elba, was traversing the department of the Drôme, he happened to meet *Augereau* near Valence. The Ex-Emperor and the Marshal both stepped out of their carriages. *Napoleon* took off his hat, and opened his arms to him, but *Augereau* returned his embrace with coldness. "Where are you going?" said *Bonaparte*, taking him by the arm, "are you going to court?" *Augereau* replied that for the present he was going to Lyons. They continued walking together for nearly a quarter of an hour, following the road to Valence. The Ex-Emperor pretended to reproach the Marshal for his conduct, and added, "Your proclamation is a very foolish affair; why should you abuse me? It was only necessary for you to say that, the desire of the nation having been declared in favour of another sovereign, the duty of the army was to conform to it; concluding with *Vive le Roi! Vive Louis XVIII.*" *Augereau*, in return, did not scruple to reproach *Bonaparte* with his insatiable ambition, to which he had sacrificed every thing, even the happiness of France. This sort of conversation soon tired Napoleon; who, turning hastily to the Marshal, embraced him, and, touching his hat, threw himself into his carriage. *Augereau* kept his hands behind his back, did not even move the helmet from his head, and, when his former master had entered the carriage, waved his hand and took his farewell with an air of indifference. *Bonaparte*, with his usual proneness to falsehood, said an hour afterward to *Koller*, the Austrian General, "I have just heard of the infamous proclamation which *Augereau* has published; had I but known it when I met him, I should have chastised him severely." '

At the time of *Bonaparte's* return from Elba, *Augereau* was stationed at Caen in command of an extensive military division, and he continued to act as a servant of the King until the twenty-second of March (1815); when, finding that Paris and the rest of the kingdom had submitted quietly, he published a proclamation in favour of *Bonaparte,* proceeded to the metropolis, and, though not received into the presence of his former master, was assured of forgiveness, and desired to remain at his country-seat.

More pleasant ideas are suggested by the notice of one who, descended from a creditable family, passed a portion of his life with respectability in the military profession, and visited this country in the capacity of a diplomatist.

'*François Andréossy* was born at Castelnaudari, in 1761, of a family that came originally from Lucca in Italy; entered the service as lieutenant of artillery in 1781; and was successively promoted to the rank of General and Inspector General of Artillery. He followed *Bonaparte* into Egypt, and in the military reports of the army repeated notice was taken of his skill and talents. He was also of the small number of those whom *Bonaparte* brought back with him to France; where, among other appointments, he received in 1801 that of Director General of Military Stores. So many marks of confidence, earned by the information and talents of *Andréossy,* were finally crowned by the choice which the First Consul made of him to fill the delicate and honourable situation of ambassador in England after the piece of Amiens. He was appointed to this embassy in June 1802, and retained it till the rupture of the treaty in 1803. Having been sent as ambassador to Constantinople in 1812, he was there on the overthrow of *Bonaparte's* government in 1814; when he was recalled from this situation by the King, but without any censure, having been decorated with the cross of the order of St. Louis. In 1815 he was chosen by *Bonaparte,* then again restored to power, a member of the Chamber of Peers; and, though he never spoke in the public sittings, he constantly voted in the committees with those who shewed the greatest discretion and moderation. He did not take the field at Waterloo, but remained at Paris, and was appointed one of the commissioners who were charged with negotiating an armistice with the allied Generals. *Blucher* would not receive them, but the Duke of Wellington admitted them to an audience. In this conference, *Andréossy* is said to have advocated the immediate recall of Louis XVIII., and *M. de la Besnardière* was of the same opinion: but another member of the deputation declared that fifteen millions of his countrymen would consider his colleagues as *traitors;* and he affirmed that the two chambers, and the majority of the French nation, had irrevocably resolved against the return of the Bourbons. The Duke of Wellington replied, "If things are really so, force of arms must decide the question;" and the allies advanced to Paris.

— *Andréossy* lives now in retirement, occupied with literary pursuits.'

French Statesmen and Diplomatists. — This department of the subject naturally leads to an exposition of the political tenets of the principal contributors to the work; and we should have been much better pleased had they given fewer proofs of a disposition to court the ruling powers, and had maintained an impartiality which was perfectly practicable; since quite enough remained to allege against several of the characters in question, without deviating from historical fidelity. This fault is particularly conspicuous in the sketch of *Carnot*; who is said to have received, in the spring of 1814, a large pecuniary consideration for coming forwards in support of *Bonaparte* and accepting the government of Antwerp. It is true that this resolute adherent to the cause of liberty quitted his retirement at the time in question rather unexpectedly: but we shall find a complete solution of his conduct in his antipathy to the Bourbons, or in a desire to make a last effort for the sinking cause of the Revolution, without resorting to the influence of a passion always foreign to his bosom; — for it is a fact that his small property has been rather impaired than increased since he first began to fill a public station.

Champagny, who was so well known during four years (from 1807 to 1811) as *Bonaparte*'s minister for foreign affairs, was born in 1756, was brought up in the French navy, and was one of the deputies of the *noblesse* to the *États généraux* in 1789, but soon forsook his party, his name occurring among the first of those who gave up the points in dispute with the *Tiers État*. — *Barras*, after having been in exile at Brussels during the fourteen years of *Bonaparte*'s reign, returned to Paris in 1814, and was considered as deserving of a confidential mission by the Bourbons to Provence, the country of his ancestors, who were proverbially styled *aussi anciens que les rochers*. He had not, however, the good fortune to throw any impediment in the way of *Bonaparte*, or to render any service to the Bourbons: but, having stood aloof during the memorable three months, he continues to be regarded as faithful to their cause, and now resides at Paris. — A very different character, the modest *Barthélemy*, declined from purer motives to have any connection with the intruder, and remains in possession of the confidence of the public as well as of the King. He has held the highest stations without acquiring property, and has always been noted in public discussion for a wish rather to convey sound opinions in plain language, than to acquire the reputation of eloquence. He has never sanctioned the printing of any of his speeches; and the book published in 1799 under the title of *Mémoires Historiques et Diplomatiques de Barthélémy, depuis le* 14 *Juillet jusqu'au* 30 *Prairial, An VII.*, is unauthorized by him, and is in fact at variance with many of his opinions.

Decazes, the present minister of police, was born in 1780, educated for the law, and subsequently employed in a political capacity in Holland. He attached himself to the Bourbons at the restoration, and acted with great boldness after the entry of *Bonaparte* into Paris, 20th March 1815; in consequence of which he was removed from the capital, and passed the succeeding three months in the country. Returning to Paris a few days before the second entry of the King, he was appointed *prefet de police*, and in a few months succeeded *Fouché* in the important charge of minister in that department: a station in which he is not a little exposed to the attacks of the Ultra-Royalists, who form the present opposition in the French parliament. Of the latter, one of the most conspicuous is *Chateaubriand*; from whose biographical sketch we proceed to give an extract.

'*Chateaubriand* was born in 1769, at Comburg, near Fougères, of an antient family in Brittany. He entered the service in 1786, in the regiment of Navarre, and was soon afterward presented to the unfortunate Louis XVI. The army having revolted at the beginning of the Revolution, *Chateaubriand* went over to North America in 1790, and, animated with enthusiasm for the beauties of nature, wandered with infinite delight in the immense forests of the new world. It may be easily imagined what a powerful impression such scenes would make on so elevated an imagination; and it cannot be doubted that he owed to them much of his singular and romantic turn. He lived there two years, returned to Europe in 1792, and, resuming service, was wounded in that year by a shell before Thionville. This accident, added to severe illness, which for three years kept him at the point of death, prevented him from remaining in the army. He then went to England, where he experienced all the inconveniences of poverty, but became intimate with M. *de Fontanes*, whom he had slightly known in Paris; and it was this enlightened writer who first encouraged him to publish his *Genie du Christianisme*, which appeared in 1802. Anxious to add still farther to his stock of information, he departed for Egypt in July 1806, taking his route through Italy, and travelling through antient Greece, a country teeming with recollections suited to his ardent imagination; he then visited Turkey, Egypt, and lastly Jerusalem, the principal object of his journey. He afterward landed on the coasts of Africa, surveyed the spot on which Carthage had once stood, and returned home through Spain in 1807. Soon afterward he published his *Martyrs*, and in 1811 *l'Itinéraire de Paris à Jerusalem.* At last came the time when he found himself enabled to express freely his hatred to *Bonaparte*, and his devotion to the cause of the legitimate monarch. It was so early as the beginning of April 1814 that these sentiments burst forth with equal beauty and eloquence, in his book intitled *De Bonaparte et des Bourbons*; of which a prodigious number of copies was printed by order of government, and which had an incalculable effect on the public mind. He produced, at the end of the same year, a work which was remarkable from the prevalent supposition that an august hand had influenced its composition: it was intitled *Reflexions Politiques sur quelques Brochures du Jour.* M. *de Châteaubriand* had been appointed several months by the King to fill the place of French ambassador at Stockholm: but he had not departed for that city when his Majesty was obliged to go to the Netherlands at the end of March 1815. He therefore accompanied the King, and held at Ghent the station of one of his Majesty's ministers. The report which he addressed to the King in the month of May, on the situation of France, was made public and printed even at that time in Paris without any impediment from *Bonaparte*'s police. Immediately on his return, the King created M. *de Chateaubriand* a peer of France, and Minister of State: but he throughout shewed himself an Ultra-Royalist, and chose to dissent from the change adopted in September 1816 respecting the mode of treating the revolutionary party. His publication intitled *De la Monarchie selon la Charte* appeared a few days after the dissolution of the Chamber of Deputies; it was seized by the police; and, three days after its publication, an order was inserted in the official journal, purporting that M. *de Chateaubriand* was no longer to bear the title of *Ministre d'État.*'

French Literati.—M. *Benjamin Constant de Rebecque*, whose name has been of late repeatedly brought before our readers, is a native of Geneva, and was born in 1767. He came to France early in the Revolution, and, having escaped the judicial assassinations of the Jacobins, took part in the less hazardous debates which occurred under the reign of *Bonaparte*: but in 1802 he received orders to quit France, and travelled in different parts of the Continent with Madame *de Stael*, whom he is said to have assisted in several of her literary compositions. The most singular event of his life, and that which marks him for a true Frenchman, is his political vacillation in the year 1815. On hearing at Paris that *Bonaparte* had landed from Elba, he published the most energetic appeals against him through the medium of the news-papers, and among other things asked, "*Ne sommes-nous pas mille fois plus libres que sous son empire?*" Yet no sooner was the invader installed, and the submission of France apparently general, than this political sage, who professed to instruct every body around him, was persuaded to take a part in the new council, and to call on the nation to give its confidence to *le premier Général du siècle.* The consequence was that he lost all credit with the Bourbon government, although he did nothing to render himself an object of resentment, or incur the penalty of being sent out of the kingdom.

Barbier, the bibliographer, deserves notice among literary men for his valuable catalogue of the library of the *Conseil d'Etat;* a library which still exists in the Louvre, and is, we understand, likely to receive extension under his care. His *Dictionnaire des Ouvrages Anonymes et Pseudonymes* (see M. R. Vol. lxiii. p. 462. Appx.) is likewise a publication of much utility; and we learn with pleasure that he is still in the vigour of life, and likely to be of essential service to the cause of literature.

Beaujour, whose work on the United States we lately took occasion to notice (M. R. Vol. lxxix.), and who has long been known by his *Tableau du Commerce de la Grèce*, has resumed his favourite studies, and will probably give the public a performance respecting the part of Asia-Minor which adjoins the Mediterranean.

British Biography. — In this department of the present dictionary, we had reason to expect much less accuracy than in the portions which related to France and Germany; the leading facts in the former being directly known to the writers, and the latter being a country in which it is the fashion to record even *minutiæ* with punctilious accuracy. Under the head of *Canning*, that minister is confounded with his relation, the Envoy to the Swiss Cantons; and, under that of Lord *Cochrane*, we find the extraordinary mistake of giving two lives of the same individual, the naval actions of his Lordship being ascribed to one person and his political transactions to another. Yet, in the midst of these misapprehensions, the substance of the narratives is clear, and in general accurate; more so, at least, than it commonly is in works of this description.

German Biography. — Here we find a list of the names and publications of many literary men who are little known in England; among others, the works of *Arndt*, the intrepid asserter of the liberty of his country against the tyranny of *Bonaparte.* — *Adelung*, a nephew of the well known philologist, (see M.R. Vol. lxvi. p. 478.) is established at Petersburgh, and is said to continue that course of study in which his uncle was so distinguished. — *Cotta*, the well known bookseller of Tubingen, has figured also as a politician, having been a member of the Wurtemberg parliament, and an adherent in their stormy debates to the side of the popular party. He was deputed in 1814 to the Congress of Vienna, with M. *Bertuch*, by the body of German booksellers, to urge a point of the greatest importance to the owners of German copy-rights; viz. "That there should be but one law for the whole empire, and that it should be penal to import clandestine impressions from one principality to another." This question was at that time adjourned, amid the hurry of more important discussions: but it is now brought before the Diet of Frankfort, and, if carried in the affirmative, will have, together with the perpetuity of copy-right already established in Germany, the effect of rendering the remuneration of literary men more liberal in that country than in any other part of Europe.

Among German commanders, we find the old General *Beaulieu* still alive, though born so far back as 1725, and exhibiting in his career a striking example of the long blanks which so frequently occur in the promotion of military men. He served in the Austrian army in the war of 1756, and attained the rank of Lieutenant-colonel, but did not fill a conspicuous situation until the French Revolution, when he had considerably passed his 60th year. Even then, he was distinguished by a spirit and decision more suited to the ardour of youth, and gave the French several severe checks in Flanders in 1793 and 1794. Appointed afterward to the chief command in Italy, he was the first of the long list of Austrian officers whose reputation faded under the talents of *Bonaparte*; and he has since lived retired, though not unrewarded by the court of Vienna.

'The *Marquis de Chasteler*, General in the Austrian army, was born in Austrian Hainault about the year 1750, entered the service at an early age, and made choice of the engineer-department. He distinguished himself in the war against the Turks, and received for his services at the siege of Belgrade, in 1789 the cross of Maria-Theresa. He was in the campaign of 1793 in Flanders, gave eminent proofs of his valour in several skirmishes, and was wounded seven times at the siege of Valenciennes. In 1798 he was sent to Petersburgh to negotiate the arrangements for the second coalition against France; and to request that *Suwarrow* might be placed at the head of the allied armies. He was chief of the staff in Italy in the campaign of 1799, and was actively engaged in the passage of the Adige: but, in directing the siege of Alexandria, he received a severe wound. In 1805, Prince Charles made choice of him as chief of the staff in the army which he commanded in Italy, against *Masséna*. On the renewal of the war between Austria and France in 1809, he was appointed under Field-Marshal *Jellachich* to organize the rising of the Tyrolese; he proceeded vigorously in this enterprize; and, falling suddenly on a corps detached from the rest, he succeeded in cutting them to pieces, and made himself master of the Tyrol before the French could collect forces to oppose him. He was, however, soon afterward pursued by

Marshal *Lefebvre*, who had just entered the country with a very superior army, and who obliged him to make a precipitate retreat. He was afterward honoured with distinguished marks of the approbation of his sovereign, and in the campaign of 1813 he led the attack on Marshal *St. Cyr* at Dresden. He also shewed great conduct in the campaign of Italy against the Neapolitans commanded by *Murat*. To conclude, the Marquis *de Chasteler* is one of the bravest Generals in the Austrian army, and has received fifteen wounds in the field of battle.'

Bellegarde, one of the most distinguished officers of the age, is a Savoyard by birth. Having been quickly promoted, he arrived, at the age of thirty-six, at the rank of General; was appointed military adviser to the Archduke Charles on the retirement of *Clairfait*; and the admirable arrangements of the campaign of 1796, and the defeat of the army of *Jourdan*, were probably due to the counsels of *Bellegarde*. In 1799, he acquired equal honour, but it was at the head of a separate and inferior force. Had he held the place of the imbecile *Mack* in 1805, *Bonaparte* would never have been enabled to get into the rear of the Austrians, or to put an end to so formidable a coalition by a campaign of two months. Having served several years in the council of war in Vienna, and borne a part in the memorable conflicts of Aspern and Wagram, *Bellegarde* was sent, in the end of 1813, to command the Austrian forces in Italy, and was in that country when *Murat* made his rash advance from Naples in March 1815. This attempt he soon succeeded in overthrowing; and, after having retained the command in Lombardy until all was quiet, he has withdrawn for a season (still in the vigour of life) from active duty, and devotes his time to private intercourse and study.

Spanish Generals and Ministers. — Of the Spanish commanders of the present day, few are intitled to particular notice; and, among those of whom sketches are given in these volumes, one of the first places is evidently due to Count *Abisval*, better known to the readers of news-papers under the name of *General O'Donnel*. He was born in Spain of an Irish family in 1770, and formed himself to his profession in the war of 1793, which was chiefly prosecuted in the Pyrenees. On the recommencement of hostilities in 1808, he commanded in Catalonia, and, in point of judgment and combination, afforded a striking contrast to *Blake*, *Cuesta*, and others of his brother-officers. Having attracted the notice of Lord Wellington, he was promoted in 1813, and enabled to bear a distinguished part in the operations of that campaign. — Lord W. was instrumental also in confirming in the public confidence another native of Spain, who is better known as a diplomatist than as a tactician, but who, in the summer of 1808, was greatly instrumental in accomplishing the surrender of *Dupont's* division in Andalusia; — we allude to *Cevallos.*

'*Don Pedro Cevallos* was born at St. Andero in 1764, of an antient and noble family; he has from his youth followed a diplomatic career, and was for several years secretary to an embassy. In 1784, he entered the Secretary of State's Office, where he distinguished himself equally by his probity and talents. *Godoy*, then Duke of Alcudia, and foreign minister to Charles IV., anxious to attach *Cevallos* to himself, gave him one of his cousins in marriage, and, on becoming prime-minister, appointed him First Secretary of State. In this situation, he sometimes ventured to oppose *Godoy*, but the latter did not then imagine that he had any reason to fear him; accordingly, he did not remove *Cevallos* from his place, but carefully concealed from his knowlege the intrigues with *Bonaparte*. In the beginning of 1808, when *Savary* came to Madrid to support the false assertions of *Murat*, *Cevallos* was one of the first of the council who advised that Ferdinand should not quit his capital: but, seeing his sovereign resolved on following the perfidious counsels of *Murat* and *Savary*, he prepared to accompany him. On their arrival at Vittoria, *Cevallos* declared that he endeavoured to persuade the King not to quit that town: but the intreaties of *Savary* were again successful. He at first accepted office under *Joseph Bonaparte*, but soon forsook him, and published at Madrid "*A Statement of the Means employed by the Emperor Napoleon to usurp the Crown of Spain.*" This memorial was speedily translated into almost every language of Europe; and *Bonaparte* was so much irritated at it, that, by a decree issued expressly on this occasion, (dated 12th Nov. 1808,) he declared *Cevallos* an enemy and a traitor to France and Spain. In 1814, when Ferdinand recovered his throne, *Cevallos* re-assumed his place as First Secretary of State, and was the author of the greater part of those decrees of which the object was to open new roads, to dig canals, and to establish a more regular plan of public education. Notwithstanding his great public services, and the confidence reposed in him by the King, he was included in the general dismission of the ministry in January 1816: but he was recalled in February following, and was again intrusted with the direction of Foreign Affairs.'

None of the restored governments has hitherto so much disappointed public expectation as that of Ferdinand VII.: but, if we may credit some appearances, a faint hope may be entertained that he will adopt the liberal course of policy pursued by Louis XVIII. during the last twelve months. This expectation is partly founded on the recall of one of the most promising members of the late Cortez, who was sentenced three years ago to a most singular and unmerited exile.

'*Arguelles* was born at Ribadesella in Asturia, in 1775, and brought himself into notice at the University of Oviedo by his promising abilities and lively imagination. Being the youngest of his family, he went, when he had completed his education, to Madrid, in quest of a civil appointment; he was soon intrusted with a mission to Lisbon; and, on his return, he was sent to London, apparently with a view to regulate some financial matters, but in reality to transact a most important political negotiation. He returned to Spain, and was in Cadiz when the last revolution broke out, and when (in 1809) the authorities were obliged to take shelter in that city. He was soon chosen a deputy to the provisional assembly of government, became a member of the committee charged with framing a constitution, drew up the report made on this important occasion, and gave repeated proofs of his talents as an author and an orator. Yet, on the 10th of May 1814, at four o'clock in the morning, the ministers of Ferdinand caused him to be arrested at Madrid, and carried in chains to the state-prison. Judges were appointed to conduct his trial: but he shewed so much ability in his defence, that his accusers knew not how to proceed, and recommenced not fewer than five different times; till at last the King, to put an end to so uncommon a proceeding, ordered the papers to be laid before him, and wrote on them, "*Ten years of the galleys at Ceuta.*"'

Modern Greeks. — The schemes of *Bonaparte*, however different in point of motive, have had the effect of promoting those discoveries which have excited so much disinterested attention on the part of our travelling countrymen; and the list of living *literati* presents occasionally the name of a Greek whose primary object is to rouse the faculties of his countrymen, and prepare them for throwing off the Ottoman yoke.

'*Coray*, called in Greek *Coraïs*, is an able physician and a learned Hellenist. His family came from the Isle of Chios, and he was born at Smyrna in 1748. Besides the study of the antient languages, he early cultivated those of modern days; and, while very young, he translated a catechism from the German into modern Greek. To complete his literary education, and render his acquirements in some degree useful to his country, he quitted Greece and passed into France in 1782, pursuing his studies for several years at the University of Montpellier; where he added a knowlege of medicine and natural history to the acquirements which he had already made in philology. He there took his doctor's degree, and came in 1788 to fix himself in Paris. We owe to this learned and laborious translator and editor, "*Les Caractères de Théophraste, d'après un manuscrit du Vatican, contenant des additions qui n'ont point encore paru en France: nouvelle traduction, avec le texte Grec*, 1799, 8vo.; — *Traité d'Hippocrate des airs, des eaux, et des lieux; traduction nouvelle, avec le texte Grec, et des notes*, 1800, 2 vols. 8vo.; — and *Traité des*

des Délits et des Peines, traduit de l'Italien de Beccaria en Grec moderne, avec des notes, 1802, 8vo." He was likewise the editor of *la Bibliothèque Hellenique*, or a collection of Greek works, with notes; eleven volumes of which in 8vo. first appeared, printed in Paris at the expence of the brothers *Zosima*, Greek merchants. They contain the works of Isocrates, in 2 vols., and Plutarch's Lives in 6 vols.; also, under the title of *Prodromus*, the different histories of Ælian, and the fragments of Nicolas Damascenus and of Heraclides; — and, under the title of *Parerga*, the Fables of Esop, and the Stratagems of *Polyænus*. The remainder is continued at the expence of the Gymnasium of Chios. This collection is destined for circulation in Greece, and forms a proper sequel to the hopes expressed by M. *Coray* in his *Mémoire sur l'état actuel de la Civilisation en Grèce, Paris,* 1803, 8vo.

'*Codrika*, (*Panagiotis*,) an Athenian, came to Paris about the year 1800, with the title of secretary and interpreter to the Ottoman embassy. When removed from this situation by his court, he remained in France, where the government granted him a pension of 250l. a-year, which he has since continued to enjoy. He has published, 1. A translation into modern Greek of *Fontenelle*'s Plurality of Worlds, 1794. 2. *Observations on the Opinions of some Hellenists on the Subject of Modern Greek,* 1803, 8vo. 3. *Observations on Bartholday*'s *Voyage in Greece,* in the *Magazin Encyclopédique*.'

We are sorry to be under the necessity of adding that here these philologists do not exhibit a pattern of harmony; *Codrika* having recently attacked his elder countryman in a Greek pamphlet, composed with a degree of vehemence that recalls all the indecorum of antient combatants.

Italians. — The present is not the golden age of Italy, and here the biographer finds a very limited number of either Generals or Artists to put on record. We shall accordingly confine ourselves to the notice of one whose reputation is known to almost all the *cognoscenti* of Europe, and who had lately occasion to pay a visit to our shores.

'*Canova*, the celebrated sculptor, was born in 1757 at Passagno, a village of the Venetian States, in the diocese of Treviso; and he executed, at the early age of seventeen, a half-length Eurydice, in soft marble. He then removed from the sculptor with whom he lived in Bassano, to the Academy of Fine Arts in Venice, where he gained several prizes. His group of Dædalus and Icarus brought him a pension of three hundred ducats, granted by the Senate of Venice on their sending him to Rome in 1779. Among other performances, he completed in that city in 1809 the model of Perseus holding the head of Medusa, which he executed in marble in the following year, and which some persons have not hesitated to place on a level with the Apollo Belvidere, both for the perfection of the work and the symmetry of the shape. The genius of *Canova* was brought to perfection by his study of the exquisite models of antiquity, aided by that of the best antient authors, whom he still causes to be read aloud to him while engaged on his labours. Originality, ease, and richness of fancy are his leading characteristics.'

We conclude our extracts with the notice of a person, whose name has been associated with the defence of state-prisoners in France almost ever since the beginning of the Revolution, and who has lately received distinguished rewards at the hands of Louis XVIII.

'*Chauveau Lagarde* was born at Chartres about the year 1765, and is one of the most distinguished barristers in Paris. He is remarkable for having frequently given his assistance to persons brought before the fatal revolutionary tribunals and courts-martial; the most celebrated among his clients having been General *Miranda*, *Brissot*, and, above all, *Marie Antoinette*, whose defence he was ordered by the tribunal to conduct with *Tronçon de Coudray*. When sentence was pronounced on the Queen, they were both arrested, to undergo an examination respecting the secrets which that Princess might have confided to them: but this strange abuse of power produced nothing against them, and they were set at liberty. Having been directed by the government of 1793 to defend the cause of *Charlotte Corday*, M. *Chauveau Lagarde* received the following note from that courageous woman, after her sentence: "You conducted my defence in the most generous and delicate manner: it was the only one that could have suited my cause; I thank you for it, and I will give you a proof of my esteem. I have just been informed that my property is confiscated; I owe a small matter to the jailor, and I leave it to you to discharge the debt."—In 1816, he was appointed to defend General *Bonnaire*, in which he acquitted himself with his usual zeal. Though unwell at the time, he was carried into court, and pleaded the cause with great warmth and ability.'

We have observed, in the course of our examination of these volumes, sundry errors in the orthography of proper names; and occasionally (as in the instance of General *Carteaux*) the ludicrous mistake of inserting among the *hommes vivans* the names of persons who departed from this world some time since. It is a more serious charge to allege the partiality of the work, not only in insertions but in omissions: the writers or editors having ventured, in the case of favoured individuals, to keep out certain political *mementos* which would have ill squared with the present situation of the parties. Yet, whatever may be objected to the book in point of politics, its literary impartiality is undoubted; and its pages contain many very convenient lists of the writings of the age. On the whole, therefore, though its execution often bears marks of haste, we repeat that it may be safely recommended as a repertory of the transactions of existing public personages.

ART. VII. *Abrégé des Mémoires, &c.*; *i. e.* An Abridgement of the Memoirs of the Marquis *de Dangeau*, taken from the original MS., and containing many Anecdotes of Louis XIV. and his Court; with Notes historical and critical, and a Sketch of the Regency of the Duke of Orleans, by Madame DE GENLIS. 4 Vols. 8vo. Paris, Treuttel and Wurtz; London, Colburn. Price 1l. 11s. 6d. sewed.

THE name of *Dangeau* is so little known to the public either in France or England, that, on turning to the volumes before us, the attention of almost every reader will be directed to the labours of Madame DE GENLIS. That lady has long been distinguished in the world, but her literary fame has partaken in no small degree of the fluctuation of her political opinions; her later works having by no means supported the reputation of those which she wrote when acting as governess in the family of Orleans. Whatever may be the cause of this unfortunate inequality, or whether it be owing (as some allege) to her having been indebted to the assistance of others for a portion of her early fame, we do not pretend to decide: but it is perfectly evident that the performance before us will in no degree contribute to the redemption of her celebrity. The supplementary parts, written by herself, are marked by no particular display of vigour or imagination; and the choice of so poor a collection for the honours of the press is certainly not calculated to do credit to her judgment. We are, we confess, much more disposed to pass a severe sentence on an attempt to impose a worthless book on the public, than on the political tergiversation with which it is common to charge Madame DE G.; the latter fault having been so frequent on the other side of the Channel, and prompted of late years by such extraordinary vicissitudes, that female constancy could scarcely be expected to withstand the temptation. In fact, these changes have been carried to such a point in France, that the almost total *défaut de patriotisme* is one of the first admissions that our neighbours are ready to make on conversing with a foreigner respecting the unfortunate state of their country.

The main part of this book consists of the Memoirs or rather of the Diary of the Marquis *de Dangeau*, extending from the year 1684 to 1720: but the minor pieces, forming a fourth of the whole, are from the pen of Madame DE GENLIS, and consist of a sketch of the life of *Dangeau*, a prefatory essay, and a brief narrative of the regency of the Duke of Orleans. Postponing for the present our notice of the contributions of the fair editor, we shall, for a few minutes, point the attention of our readers to the 'Memoirs:' which are little more than a daily record of circumstances that occurred at court, and greatly inferior to the well known Diary of our Lord Melcombe, Bubb Doddington; who not only entertained his readers with the reflections which passed in his own mind, but occasionally with information of some interest respecting the course of public transactions. Nothing, on the other hand, can be more trifling or insipid than most parts of the French nobleman's diary. *Ex. gra.*

'9th *July*, 1684.

'*Guénégault*, Colonel of the regiment of Poitou, passing on horseback over the bridge, fell into the Rhine, but saved his life, an instance of extraordinary good fortune.

'*Wednesday*, 12.—A visible eclipse took place between two and three o'clock.

'*Monday*, 17.—The Prince of Conti returned from the army, and the King bestowed much praise on him for his conduct during the campaign.

'*Saturday*, 19.—The King, on retiring to rest, called Monsieur *de la Trémouille*, and told him to give orders to the officers in attendance to allow M. le Duc *du Maine* to have the same liberty of access to him as the gentlemen of the bed-chamber.—This is what is termed having *les grandes entrées*.

'*Wednesday*, 23.—The Duke *d'Elbeuf* came this morning to ask the King's permission to marry Mademoiselle *de Navaille*. His Majesty represented to him that he was upwards of sixty-four years of age, and that he had children by two previous marriages,—but added that the Duke had his leave to act in this business as he judged proper.

'*Saturday*, 26.—This morning, the King resolved in council to reduce the taxes two millions two hundred thousand francs (100,000l. sterling), besides the million which he had already taken off.

'*Sunday*, 27.—During the last week, 10,000l. sterling were expended on the improvements at Versailles: twenty-two thousand men and six thousand horses being daily employed in this work.

'*Wednesday*, 30.—At eight o'clock, the King's apartments were thrown open; and the ladies of honour of the Dauphiness and of Madame, of Madame *de Nevers*, and of Madame *de Choiseul*, were present, to the number in all of twenty-eight. The King made them play at a game by which they *could* not lose, and they won each four lots of gold stuffs, or beautiful ribbons; the game was followed by supper.'

This specimen is more than a fair one; it is a very favourable sample of the work, for we have taken pains to strike out even from these few sentences several circumstances which were too trifling to be laid before our readers. What would they say to a journalist who gravely records that, on such a day, 'Monseigneur amused himself with hunting a weasel

with

with terriers in a garret;' and that the King, when walking in his garden, had the condescension to allow the ladies and gentlemen who followed him 'to pick and eat fruit!' Yet the book is made up of these petty details, with long descriptions of *fêtes*, hunting parties, quarrels about precedency, and other matters of equal moment. Those, however, who attach consequence to the mode of admitting ambassadors at court, or to the etiquette of receiving and returning public visits, will be not a little gratified with these volumes, and will find in the Marquis a writer who outstrips even Lord Valentia in the minuteness of his descriptions. In one passage, (vol. iv. p. 101.) our ambassador, Lord Stair, is represented as giving serious offence to the Prince of *Conti* by not coming to meet him *au bas de l'escalier*; an act of attention which his Lordship gravely maintained was not due to his Royal Highness. It is said that *Bonaparte*, when he had assumed the Imperial dignity, and was desirous of re-establishing the etiquette of the old court, applied to Madame DE GENLIS; who is reported to have answered that "she had forgotten every thing but the bounties of her sovereign." How unlucky it was that she did not think of transmitting to the Imperial cabinet the MS. of the Memoirs now before us! which would have put the courtiers of the day in full possession of all the minutiæ of etiquette, and might by some lucky consequence have saved us the very irksome task of travelling through it in its printed form.

Louis XIV. is the prominent character in these Memoirs, and seems to absorb the admiration not only of the Marquis, whom we should forgive for being dazzled by a luminary so near to him, but of Madame DE GENLIS, although contemplating his splendours at the distance of more than a hundred years. This lady takes great pains to persuade her readers, in the notes, that Louis was not the proud ostentatious prince that he has been so long considered: but unsupported assertions, or even insulated facts, will not be sufficient to outweigh the general impression, founded, as it is, on such a mass of historical evidence. She does not chuse to blame *le grand monarque* either for the repeal of the edict of Nantes or for the misfortunes of the latter years of his reign; and still less will she allow that the feelings engendered in this æra of ambition were instrumental to the subsequent disasters of France: which were, in her opinion, entirely owing to the Regent, and to the bad education given to Louis XV. In like manner, the Marquis *de Dangeau* expatiates largely on the kindness and liberality of his master to the family of our abdicated sovereign: but he makes no allowance for the share which policy bore in this apparent generosity.

Though the period comprized in the journal of the Marquis is of the greatest interest, it is so inadequately described in this collection of trifles that we hasten to take leave of it, and to confine our remaining observations to the supplementary pieces. The principal of these, the historical sketch of the regency of the Duke of Orleans, occupies about sixty pages of the fourth volume; and it contains, amid a number of *mediocre* passages, a few of a more entertaining stamp, such as the following picture of the Regent and his preceptor:

'The Duke of Orleans possessed an agreeable figure, and an open, intelligent countenance; he expressed himself with ease and grace; and he was gifted with a character of great penetration and sagacity. He had a considerable knowlege of painting, music, chemistry, and mechanics; and he patronized the arts and sciences with both liberality and discernment: forming in his palace a valuable collection of pictures, and another of medals. He possessed great courage, was not without military talents, and was humane and magnanimous: while no prince was ever more easy of access or more prone to clemency. Qualities and abilities so eminent ought to have formed a great man: but one of the vilest flatterers corrupted his disposition, and made him imbibe the most pernicious principles in his early youth.—He had four men of rank who acted successively as his governors, and who all died within a short period of each other. *St. Laurent*, a man of the greatest merit, was his preceptor: but, by a strange fatality, he also died. He had taken the Abbé *Dubois*, (who became afterward Cardinal and prime minister,) to copy the young Prince's lessons: this Abbé, by the pliancy of his character, gained the good will of the sub-governors; and, when *St. Laurent* died, he was authorized to continue the functions of preceptor. *Dubois* possessed a lively and sarcastic gaiety, which amused the Prince; and to please in such a quarter is to acquire an ascendency. When a vicious man wishes to govern a prince, his first care is to endeavour to corrupt him; and this plan was adopted by *Dubois*. He was well aware that he could never gain the esteem of his pupil, and sought only to make him subservient to his purposes.

'*Dubois* began by giving the young prince opinions that were not only false in themselves but particularly hurtful to persons of rank. He separated mankind into two classes,—knaves, and fools; and from this division he contended that he who passed for an honest man was nothing more than one who had the art to disguise his faults from the vulgar. These odious maxims were not brought forwards at once; sometimes they were merely insinuated; at other times they were hazarded in the form of repartees, and lively sallies; and in this manner they could be heard without exciting indignation. This was a great point gained; and thus, by little and little, they passed from the imagination to the heart. *Dubois* could never succeed in making a hypocrite of the Duke of Orleans; his frank, candid character prevented this: but he inspired him with a profound contempt for mankind; and the openness of the Prince only served to render him an unblushing infidel, and conduced greatly to the dissoluteness of the court.' *

One of the first acts of the Duke was to restore to the parliaments the right of "making remonstrances on the orders of the sovereign," a right which had been suspended under the arbitrary and overpowering rule of Louis XIV. No period ever shewed more clearly than the reign of that despot the dangers of military success to civil liberty, or the necessity of watching the earliest infractions of the executive power on the other branches of the constitution. Another action of the Duke, which forms a striking contrast to the hard-hearted conduct of Louis, was the release of the prisoners so long confined in the Bastile.

'The beginning of the regency did great credit to the Duke, who made many useful reforms in the household, the buildings, and equipages of the King: but the respect which the Marquis *de Dangeau* owed to the memory of his royal master and benefactor did not permit him to speak of a very remarkable act of justice performed after his death by the Duke. On one of the first occasions on which the latter transacted business with the secretaries of state, he called for the list of all the *lettres de cachet;* and he found many of which the motives could not be explained, and which it was impossible to discover otherwise than by questioning the prisoners, a number of whom were ignorant of the cause of their detention. These unfortunate men pined in their dungeons for crimes which were perhaps imaginary, of which they were themselves ignorant, and which the government had forgotten, as well as the victims of their tyranny. The Duke gave liberty to all those who were not imprisoned for any serious offence; that is, nearly to the whole. Among others was the Chevalier *d'Aremberg*, who had been eleven years in a dungeon for having aided the escape of an ecclesiastic named *Quesnel* from the prison of Malines. Though still young, his long sufferings had given him all the appearance of decrepitude.—An Italian was also found in the Bastile, who had been confined thirty-five years without knowing for what cause, and who had been arrested on the day of his arrival at Paris. Custom had so attached this man to his prison, where he had never been ill treated, that he considered it as his home: he represented that it would be in vain for him to search for relations or friends, all of whom must either have ceased to exist or must have forgotten him; and he asked as a favour to remain in the Bastile. The Regent complied with this singular request, and gave orders that he should be well treated, with liberty to go out and in whenever he chose."

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* For particulars of the court of Louis XIV. and the Regent, see Rev. Vol. vii. pp. 116. and 161.—Vol. xliv. p. 60.—Vol. lxxxi. p. 666.—Vol. xiv. *New Series*, p. 566.—and Vol. li. pp. 469. and 475. For memoirs of the Cardinal *Dubois*, see Vol. lxxix. *N. S.* p. 449.

In the biographical sketch of *Dangeau*, Madame DE G. labours much to give some importance to her hero: but, after all, he can be considered as nothing more than a good courtier, an indifferent poet, and a man of moderate abilities, whose memory was preserved chiefly by the manner in which *Boileau* dedicated to him his satire on nobility. This short narrative is followed by the *Discours préliminaire*, which consists of little else than a panegyric on Louis XIV. and an attack on *Voltaire*, *D'Alembert*, and the Encyclopedists, with what seems to us a matter of no little difficulty, — an eulogy of *Fénelon*, united to a defence of the King's conduct towards that illustrious prelate. Madame DE G. will not admit that *Bossuet* was jealous of the Archbishop of Cambray: but, with all our admiration for the eloquence and piety of the former, we cannot help considering his hostility to *Fénelon* as a lamentable blemish on so fair a character.

ART. VIII. *De la Souveraineté*, &c.; *i. e.* On Sovereignty, and Forms of Government; an Essay intended to rectify several Political Errors. By FREDERIC ANCILLON, Author of the "Sketch of Political Revolutions in Europe since the End of the Fifteenth Century," and of "Miscellanies in Literature and Philosophy." Translated from German into French, with Notes. 8vo. pp. 166. Paris. 1816.

THE name of ANCILLON has long been known to readers of French literature, and the author of the treatise now before us is the son of the writer of the same denomination; whose family, originally French, has been settled for a century past in the Prussian dominions. We extract an account of him from the *Biographie des Hommes Vivans*, the work now in course of publication at Paris of which we have given a report in the VIth Article of this Appendix.

'ANCILLON was born at Berlin in 1766, and commenced his career as professor in the Royal Military Academy and preacher in a reformed church in that metropolis. In 1801 he published *Mélanges de Littérature et de Philosophie*, 2 vols. 8vo., which were reprinted in 1809: but that which really established his reputation was his historical work, written in French, and intitled, "*Tableau des Révolutions du système politique de l'Europe, depuis la fin du 15me siècle*, Berlin, 1806, 4 vols. 8vo., which he himself translated into German, calling it *General Considerations on History*, &c. His success as an author brought him into favour with the present King of Prussia, who made choice of him as governor for his son the Prince-Royal, and for his nephew Frederic-William-Louis; and he had the honourable but melancholy task of pronouncing in the French Protestant church of Berlin a funeral oration on the late Queen of Prussia, who died in the bloom of youth, a victim to the distresses of her country. Her melancholy fate was feelingly depicted in this discourse, which was but little known in France, because it was strictly prohibited by the Imperial government.'

The idea of the present publication was evidently suggested by the dissatisfied situation of Germany, particularly of the Prussian dominions; where the inhabitants are of opinion that their government has been very backward in fulfilling the promises given so largely in 1813, when the exertions of all ranks and all ages were required for the overthrow of *Bonaparte*. The Germans are fond of discussions *ab ovo*; and M. ANCILLON begins with an inquiry into the origin of society, the only striking passage of which is his resolute censure of the state of nature that is so much extolled by the disciples of *Rousseau*. He follows this by a string of observations, evidently written for the meridian of monarchy; among which he brings forwards the old argument for considering a nation as a family, and their ruler as their parent. We are always prepared for a moderate share of inconsistency and sometimes of contradiction in the compositions of our French neighbours; but we were in hopes that the sedate habits of Germany had released M. ANCILLON from any liability to such vexatious deviations. His work, however, discovers much discrepancy; the most charitable explanation of which is that his personal opinions lean to the side of freedom, but that his situation at court produces, perhaps unconsciously to himself, a very material alteration in the thread of his deductions. What, for example, is the reader to think of such a passage as the ensuing?

'The sovereign power is that which determines the will of the society at large; the sovereign in fact creates this will. It is only then, when such a will exists, which obliges, commands, and forbids, whatever be its nature or its action, that an assemblage of individuals becomes a society, a people, a state. It is therefore absurd to say that sovereignty is inherent in the people, and that it cannot be alienated; for this assertion supposes that it is possible for a people to exist before the sovereignty; whereas the existence of a people begins only when the sovereignty is introduced under one form or another; and, wherever this is not the case, there is no such thing as a people.

'The sovereignty, therefore, does not belong to the people, nor is it inherent in them, as it has been pretended whenever the intention was to overthrow the legitimate government, and to deprive the people of the advantages of stability and social order. It is equally false to say that sovereignty proceeds from the people; for the people, as a people, owe their existence to it.'

It would be a waste of words to enter on a refutation of such notions, and to exert ourselves to prove that sovereign power should be exercised only for the benefit of the people; or to shew that, with regard to Prussia, the question is not materially altered by the accidental benevolence of the reigning sovereign, since his successors may, and in all probability will, act the part of despots. Passing over the subsequent passages, in which the writer appears to deem it possible to guard liberty without imposing any restraint on the royal prerogative, we proceed to a more pleasant part of our task by quoting his description of a mixed government.

'The great problem, how ought a constitution to be framed, so as to answer the most beneficial purposes? cannot be resolved in a general manner. The object is the same at all times and in all places, but the means of attaining it are as multiplied and as various as are nations, countries, and ages. The most perfect acquaintance with all circumstances, moral and physical, — the closest examination of all the peculiar characteristics of a people, — and constant attention to their past and present situation, — are the only means of determining so important a question, or obtaining useful results. The best constitution is always that which proceeds from the real character and history of a nation, and which consequently is so adapted to it as not to admit of application to any other state. If it be true that Solon gave the Athenians the laws of all others the most suitable to them, he exhibited no doubt an example of the perfection of legislation. To say which are the best laws, in a general sense, is in my opinion an absurdity; it is no more possible to have one model of government for all countries than to have one bridge for all streams, or one soul to animate all bodies.'

Here, as to the intention of the author, all is evidently right, and the only fault is a fault of style; — viz. a vagueness and want of precision almost always attendant on those who address themselves more to the imagination than the intellect. We may evidently discern something more defined in the following passage on the subject of *Popular Representation:*

'The representative form of government, although unknown to the antients, is the only means by which a great people can take a share in the legislation, and the best for preserving them from anarchy; or, in other words, from the despotism of the rabble: — it ought ever to be the basis of a mixed government. No one will now dream of seeking for liberty in popular assemblies. The end of social union is the progressive improvement of the individuals of whom society is composed, and the true means by which we may attain it are liberty and safety; that is, the ascendancy of just laws, the only safe-guard of liberty. When, therefore, it is asked who ought to be chosen as representatives of the people? we must answer, those in whom we expect to find the purest principles of liberty and the best abilities; those who have the strongest interest in maintaining public security, and the stability of social order; and these are without doubt the men of property. Property, that singular and mysterious union of persons with things and of things with persons, is, in fact, the real bond by which society is held together. The political rights of citizens ought therefore to be in proportion to their property, and a certain share of the latter is the first condition necessary for a representative. It is true that fortune will not confer talents, information, disinterestedness, or patriotism: it will not even prevent corruption, but it will render this evil less probable because more difficult. Moreover, a moderate fortune gives the means of education, and insures to him who possesses it the command of the time that is necessary to enlighten his mind and unfold his faculties. Genius, it is true, will force its way through the trammels of indigence, and the obstacles which it opposes will sometimes add to its power and elevation: but genius is an exception which cannot serve as the basis of a rule. To require a competent fortune in a representative is not to introduce the aristocracy of wealth, (the most fatal of all aristocracies,) nor does it shut out from the mass of the people the hope of obtaining the most honourable situations. Property is in perpetual motion, and is constantly changing masters. Misfortunes and folly impoverish the rich; chance, activity, and ability, enrich the poor: it is therefore favourable to the increase of national wealth to give property the most elevated rank in the political scale, because it excites the industry and activity of citizens by an additional attraction. It may certainly happen that a man of merit may be thus excluded from the national representation: but it is less dangerous to expose ourselves to this loss than to divide the legislative power among innovators and men of wealth, — among all those whose pride, vanity, or cupidity, have every thing to gain and nothing to lose.'

In treating of the different orders of the state, the author insists at considerable length on the necessity of the nobility being great landed proprietors; a point in which his opinions are considerably at variance with the existing laws of France. These laws, enacted during the Revolution, and not rescinded since the restoration of the Bourbons, provide for an equal division of property among the children or next heirs of a testator, and enable the latter to appropriate only a fourth to any individual whom he may prefer. The palliative to this law, which, were it to continue long in operation, would soon sap the foundation of all the great families in the kingdom, is in the power possessed by the proprietor of alienating his estates during his life by free gifts, bonds, &c.

When he comes to speak of the English constitution, M. Ancillon takes occasion to pass many compliments both on it and on our national character: but he very justly observes that it would suit scarcely any other people in the present state of the Continent. To form a house of Peers and a house of

Commons is a very different thing from securing all the benefits of that which it has required centuries to form, — "which has grown with our growth, and strengthened with our strength." Foreigners have very little idea of the true nature of the English constitution, and are particularly puzzled to comprehend how the nation can tolerate the existence of so *mischievous* a body as the Opposition.

Adverting to the present state of Prussia, and the general wish of the people for a new constitution, the writer dwells strongly on the importance of studying the national character under both past and present circumstances, and of guarding against the adoption of a particular system on account of its theoretical beauty.

> 'Sudden changes (he remarks) are always prejudicial; forms of government have not a positive but a relative value; and we should introduce nothing which is not in strict conformity with the previous habits of the people, but keep in view antient customs, peculiarities, and even prejudices. If the French government before the Revolution had considered the spirit of the times in the manner here pointed out, it would have acted very differently, and have saved its country, Europe, and itself: but that government, crouching under the yoke of what was called public opinion, allowed itself to be guided and misled by it: thus the opportunity of saving the monarchy was lost; and this fatal period was filled with crimes and calamities of all sorts, which will call down on it the curses of future ages, and the irrevocable condemnation of the world at large.
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> 'Divine Justice, in its slow but certain progress, has at length reached the Revolution; its avenging hand has ravished from the French people their last triumph, that of arms, and has torn from them the trophies which enveloped and hid from them all their excesses. It is time that the other nations of Europe, enlightened by this tremendous lesson, should become aware of their peril, and expel from among them the seeds of so many sanguinary errors.'

The subject of this book naturally leads its author to the old ground of the causes of the French Revolution, and suggests the opinion that a firmer conduct on the part of the unfortunate Louis XVI. would have either prevented or stopped the eruption: — 'had he possessed vigour enough to support M. *de Calonne*, the monarchy would have been saved and the people satisfied.' We can by no means subscribe to this opinion. The operating causes were too numerous and too powerful to admit of being thus checked in the outset. The disorder of the finances, the ungracious immunities of the privileged classes, the inequality of taxation, and the waste of public money, all concurred to excite a discontent and even a ferment in the public mind, which could be controuled neither by the inventive powers of a minister nor by the firmness of a sovereign. The explosion was accelerated, it is true, by collateral causes, such as the infatuation of the Duke of Orleans and the pressure of a year of scarcity: but these are not sufficient to account for the agitation which pervaded not only the towns but retired villages; infecting even the lower orders of the clergy, and leading that powerful body to concur with the *Tiers État* on questions on which their adherence to the *noblesse* would have been of the greatest importance.—Another assertion, and one of much greater force, is that there would probably have been no Revolution had the throne of France been filled by such a sovereign as Henry IV. This may be true, because in that case a timely check would have been given to many of the sources of public discontent; such as the undue exemption of the clergy and nobility, and the abuses in the public expenditure. It is also by no means clear that so intelligent a ruler would have taken part in the American war; and he certainly would not have committed the unaccountable folly of calling a meeting of the *États Généraux* at the time when he must necessarily throw himself on their mercy.

Having devoted our attention so far to M. Ancillon, we are next to bestow a few remarks on his translator; who has not chosen to give his name, and who partakes in no small degree of the inequality of the original writer: but who, on certain occasions, discovers the power of reasoning with considerable energy on the actual state of France. The ensuing paragraph is extracted from his preface:

> ' It is impossible to listen in silence when we hear so many persons continually exclaiming " the Revolution is terminated," as if it were possible that a political concussion of such magnitude could end on a particular day, or by the magical effects of a single event. A Revolution is not to be crushed in a moment: we have already seen three or four Revolutions brought to a close, and we have seen likewise the growth of others; and who shall venture to affirm that similar causes, that errors of the same kind, will not produce among us a recurrence of the same political shocks? The causes of such events ought to be sought out and eradicated; former faults should be ascertained and avoided. Other nations have only seen our Revolution from a distance, and yet the most thinking men are of opinion that the seeds of it have taken root among them: how, then, can it be supposed that no trace of it should remain among a people who have been so long familiar with it?
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> ' The most formidable effects of the Revolution are the principles which it engenders; principles the more powerful because, among a number of people, they have already acquired the strength of prejudices; and because, with a great proportion of the

the present generation, they have still the charm of novelty. On the one hand, the despotism of *Bonaparte* has changed neither political theories nor the manner of thinking of those men who co-operated in the Revolution; on the other, the care with which he concealed from the rising generation all ideas of liberty, and of a constitutional government, condemns young people to so profound an ignorance, and to such total inexperience in matters of government, that they may be easily led to embrace blindly such seductive doctrines. It is, then, of the highest importance, even to ourselves, to examine and appretiate justly these doctrines,— to reject those that are false and dangerous, — and to substitute in their place opinions more wise and sober. We should thus prevent France from wandering again in those devious paths which she has already trodden.'

At the close of the original text, the translator has added a variety of observations in the form of notes, none of which possess a claim to the attention of our readers except the subsequent; which is really a forcible and judicious picture of the state of feeling among the military and civil officers who have borne a part in the long period of the French Revolution.

'Nothing is more essential to a government than to get hold of those vital principles which animate a nation, and to erect on them the edifice of its popularity. It is not by attempting to eradicate these principles, at least, it is not by dwelling on all the evils and crimes of which they have been the cause, that we can prevent the recurrence of similar misfortunes. Forbearance and time are necessary with a people accustomed to power and conquest, before they can learn in what respects that power and conquest are censurable; above all, it is requisite that they should not apprehend that the great and difficult actions which they have atchieved should be either forgotten or disowned. We can form no adequate idea of the dignified sentiments and generous feelings which remain in the breasts of men who have been in a constant state of agitation, who have been exposed to imminent dangers, and whose exertions have been continual; their faults may have been great; their errors, and let us not hesitate to say it, their vices, may even inspire dread and disgust: but they preserve in the midst of all a remainder of dignity in a consciousness of strength, and in the recollection of an active life, which maintains within them that fire of moral sentiment which is apparently extinguished. Certainly we must feed this fire with other materials, and must give these sentiments another direction and other objects; and this is easier than it may be supposed. A vast number of the most fanatical among the Leaguers became the most faithful adherents of Henry IV., who knew how to appropriate to himself the energy and devotedness of those bold and determined characters: had he done otherwise, they would have considered themselves as despised.

'What is it that renders a people capable of knowing and repairing their errors? — the recollection of the dignified sentiments which they had preserved during and even after their delirium. This feeling is not to be destroyed. If it be wounded, it will change into a stubborn pride, which acknowleges no fault, and which will be the less susceptible of amendment or repentance from the injustice shewn to it. If, on the contrary, it be soothed; if pains be taken to shew the people their errors, giving them at the same time due praise for all that was great or generous in their conduct; they will gradually yield and make concessions: even their dispositions will change; and they will soon obey without reserve that power which, after having so well known how to appretiate them, will not hesitate to accept their services.'

These observations are evidently suggested by the divided state of public feeling in France; the *noblesse* in that country being impatient to bring back things to their former level: and the clergy forgetting, in their indiscriminate zeal for one object, that the Revolution was instrumental in overthrowing many of the worst appendages of the church, and may be made to contribute in promoting, particularly by toleration, the cause of true Christianity. The King, however, has been at no loss to take a decided turn: during the last twelve months, he has attached himself in a very confiding manner to the party formerly connected with the Revolution; and his latest measures, down to the plan for the progressive admission of the half-pay officers into active service, imply a conviction that, their former leader being politically dead, the reigning sovereign may accept their professional aid without hesitation.

Art. IX. *Mémoires, &c.; i. e. Memoirs of the Class of Mathematical and Physical Sciences in the Institute of France.* Vol. XII. for the Year 1811. 4to. Paris. 1812—1814; and Vol. XIII. for 1812. 4to. Paris. 1814—1816.

[*Article concluded from the last Appendix*, pp. 468—494.]

Mathematics and Astronomy.

Very little occurs in the historical part of Volume XII., on these subjects, composed as usual by M. Delambre, that does not relate to the memoirs published in that which preceded it; and which have been reported in our article above cited. Of the new works, also, which appeared during the year 1811, the most important have been previously examined in some of our numbers, viz. the *Mécanique Analytique* of *La Grange*; and the *Mémoires sur la Formule Barometrique* by M. *Ramond*; the former of which will be found in our lxxxth volume, *Old Series*, p. 163., and in Vol. lxxx. of the *New Series*, p. 511., and the latter in the several numbers through which our notices of the seventh, eighth, and ninth volumes of the Institute extended, it being in them that the observations of M. *Ramond* were first printed.

The next following articles contain very interesting accounts of the lives and writings of two eminent philosophers; viz. the celebrated navigator *Bougainville*, and our late worthy Astronomer-Royal, Dr. Maskelyne. The incidents in the career of the former are various and striking; we see him equally distinguished as a man of science, as a warrior both by sea and land, as a negotiator, and as the founder of a colony: but our limits will not allow us to give the details at length; and, as they are too interesting to admit of abridgment, we would rather pass them with this general notice than report them imperfectly. The same remark will apply to the memoir of Dr. Maskelyne. We shall therefore merely state that the former was born November 11. 1729, and died on the 31st August, 1811; and that the latter was born in 1732, and died Feburary 9. 1811.

(Part I.) MEMOIRS.

On the Distribution of Electricity at the Surface of conducting Bodies; First and Second Memoir. By M. POISSON. — We cannot attempt, in our report of these papers, to illustrate the mathematical processes which the author has adopted: but, as the theory on which he founds them, and some of the results that he has deduced, may be rendered intelligible in a few lines, we shall endeavour to exhibit them in the present article.

The theory of electricity, most generally admitted, is that which attributes all the several phænomena to two different fluids dispersed through all the bodies in nature; and in which we suppose that the particles of the same fluid mutually repulse each other, while they attract the particles of the other fluid. These attractive and repulsive forces follow the law of the inverse ratio of the square of the distance; and at the same distance the repulsive power is supposed equal to the attractive: whence it results that, when all the parts of a body contain an equal quantity of both fluids, they exercise no action on those contained in the bodies around them, and consequently no sign of electricity is in this case manifested. We therefore call this the *natural state* of the body; and, when this equilibrium is disturbed by any external cause, the body in which it takes place is said to be *electrified*. Those bodies which appear to exercise no species of action, but which admit of this fluid traversing them in every direction,— as metals, — are called *conducting bodies;* and those which oppose the progress of the fluid, — as dry air, and many others, — are called non-conductors: but the memoir before us is wholly occupied on the phænomena of the former class of bodies, either when considered in an isolated state or when they are brought near together and submitted to each other's mutual influence.

Let us imagine, says M. Poisson, a metallic body entirely immersed in dry air, and suppose a given quantity of one of the fluids to be introduced. In consequence of the repulsive force of its particles, and because the metal opposes no obstacle to its motion, we may conceive that the fluid thus added will be carried to the surface of the body; where it will be retained by the dry air that encompasses it. *Coulomb* has in fact proved, by direct experiments, that no particle of electricity remains in the interior of an electrified conducting body, except that which belongs to its natural state; and that all the fluid which is added distributes itself at the surface, forming there an extremely thin layer, which does not penetrate sensibly below the surface, and of which the thickness at every point depends on the form of the body, so that the figure which it assumes ought to be that which appertains to a state of equilibrium.

The present writer demonstrates that the problem reduces itself to that of finding what ought to be the thickness of the fluid-layer in every point of the surface, in order that its entire action may be *zero* in the interior of the electrified body. This thickness will be greatest at the extremity of the greatest of the three axes, and least at the extremities of the shortest; and these thicknesses will be to each other as the length of the axes. Supposing, therefore, the depth of the layer to be very little, we may ascertain the distribution of the electricity at the surface of a spheroid but little different from a sphere; and this case, and that of the ellipsoid, are the only instances in which, in the present state of the analytical sciences, it would be possible to assign the variable thickness of the fluid.

By employing the formulæ for the attraction of spheroids, M. Poisson calculates the attraction of the fluid lamina on a point taken either in the interior or at the surface of the electrified body; and by this mode he has found that, at the surface of a spheroid but little differing from a sphere, the repulsive force of the fluid is proportional to its thickness at each point: while it is the same in an ellipsoid of revolution, whatever may be the ratio of the axes. It follows, therefore, that, in bodies of the above forms, the electric repulsion is the greatest at those points at which it is accumulated in the largest quantity; and it is natural thence to conclude that

this

this is a general property appertaining to every variety of form: but it is difficult to demonstrate it on principles purely analytical. *Laplace*, however, has demonstrated it synthetically: from which it results that the variable pressure at the surface of electrified bodies is proportional to the square of the thickness; and, consequently, where this pressure exceeds that which is opposed to it by the air, the latter must yield, and the fluid will escape as at an opening, which is exactly the fact that takes place at the extremity of points and the sharp edges of angular bodies. The principles employed as the basis of this theory will apply equally to an isolated body, or to any number of them exposed to each other's influence: for, in order that all the bodies may remain in a permanent state of electricity, it is necessary, and it will be sufficient, that the resultant of the actions of the fluid-lamina on any point assumed in the interior of one of the bodies may be equal to zero. The application of this principle will furnish, in every case, as many equations as there are conducting masses; which equations will serve to determine the variable thickness of the electric lamina in the different bodies.

On a remarkable Modification experienced by the Rays of Light, in their Passage through certain Diaphanous Bodies; and on some other new optical Phænomena. By M. Arago. — These experiments, and the conclusion drawn from them, were made more than eight years ago; since which time they have been the subject of many interesting articles and of numerous experiments both in this country and in France, and are too well known to require any farther notice in this place.

On the new Relations which exist between the Reflection and the Polarization of Light by crystallized Bodies. By M. Biot. — The same remark applies to this article as to the preceding: to which we may also add that its length defies the condensation of it into any intelligible form, within the limits to which it is necessary for us to confine our present report.

(Part II.) Physics and Chemistry.

M. Cuvier's analysis of the labours of this class, during the year 1811, is no doubt drawn up with every degree of attention and skill; yet it is not very interesting, in consequence of the materials which compose it being in themselves rather unimportant, and appearing still more so from the length of time which has elapsed since they were brought before the class. In the department of Natural Philosophy and Chemistry, after having mentioned the discovery made by Prof. Leslie, of augmenting the effect of evaporation in producing artificial cold, by placing under the receivers of an air-pump a body peculiarly disposed to admit the vapour that is generated, M. Cuvier notices some experiments that have been made on the same subject by MM. *Clement* and *Desormes*, especially with a view to ascertain whether this process be capable of being rendered useful in an economical point of view. Some improvements also in the art of distillation, made by M. *Adam* of Montpelier, are likewise reported. They essentially consist in heating the fluid employed in one stage of the process, by the vapour that has been formed in a previous stage; a mode which, we believe, has been long known to manufacturers in this country.—We have next an account of the experiments of Count *Rumford* on the question respecting the nature of light, whether it be a substance which emanates from the luminous body, or whether it be only a certain kind of motion, impressed on some subtile fluid which is diffused through space. He decided in favour of the latter opinion; because he found that the intensity of light, as emitted from a body during combustion, bore no proportion to the quantity of matter actually consumed, but rather to the intensity with which the combustion was carried on. The experiments have been some time before the public; and, though they do not prove the point intended by them, they are marked by that ingenuity which was so characteristic of the author.

Next occurs the mention of some suggestions by M. *Deyeux* on the cultivation of the Beet; of M. *Deslonchamps* on the cultivation of the Opium-poppy in France; and of M. *Chevreul* on Indigo. We have likewise an account of some experiments of M. *Dulong* on the question whether insoluble salts are capable of exchanging their principles with certain soluble salts, and which lead him to this conclusion; 'that all the insoluble salts are decomposed by the carbonates of potash and soda, but that the complete mutual exchange of their principles does not take place in any instance; and reciprocally that all the soluble salts, the acid of which can form an insoluble salt with the base of the insoluble carbonates, are decomposed by them until the decomposition has arrived at a certain limit which we cannot pass: so that, in identical circumstances, combinations are produced absolutely opposite to each other.' The reporter then notices the process by which M. *Gay-Lussac* has obtained the Prussic acid in a state of very high concentration; and the observations of M. *Oberkampf* on the preparations of Gold.

We find nothing very remarkable under the heads of Meteorology, Mineralogy, and Zoology: but in Vegetable Physiology we have a longer detail, first of some experiments by M. *Palisot de Beauvois* on the progress of the Sap, and on the mode of fecundation of the Mosses; and afterward of MM. *Mirbel* and *Richard* on the interior structure of some kinds of Seeds, in which the use of the cotyledons is discussed, and the merit of the system is considered which takes its fundamental division from the number of these organs. This circumstance seems to have given rise to a warm controversy between these botanists on the nature of the parts of certain plants, in which we do not feel ourselves disposed to enter.

On the subject of Anatomy and Physiology, the experiments and observations of M. Le Gallois hold a distinguished rank; but, as they have been for some time well known in this country through the medium of different journals, we shall not now attempt any detail respecting them; only observing that, although they are ingenious and important, we do not think that they lead to all the conclusions which the author has deduced from them. — On the topics of Medicine and Surgery, we observe nothing that will be interesting to our readers.

After the *History* come two éloges by M. Cuvier, one on M. *Desessarts*, a physician, and the other on our countryman *Cavendish*, who was one of the foreign members of the Institute. M. *Desessarts* was the son of a surgeon, and was born in the department of the Aube, in 1729. He lost his parents early in life, but was brought up by an uncle, who was a professor in the College of Beauvais; and he was placed under the care of the Jesuits, who were very anxious to enlist him into their order. He fixed, however, on the profession of medicine, which he pursued with ardour during the remainder of his life, devoting to it almost the whole of his attention. The eulogist says that 'no one was more a physician, or a physician of more devotedness; medicine being to him a second religion, the duties of which have filled up his long life. Thinking neither of glory nor of fortune, and incapable of jealousy, even to his latest days, he studied and collected with the candour of a young man all that had any connection with his art; and at the age of 82 years he supplied our sittings with memoirs and extended reports on any medical works that appeared.' The events of his life, however, are not particularly interesting; nor do his works, which seem to have been chiefly professional, require any special notice. — With respect to the account of Mr. Cavendish, we shall not consider it as necessary to enter into any detail on a subject which must be well known to all our scientific readers: but we may observe that M. Cuvier, as indeed is always the case, is not backward to acknowlege the merit of a foreigner; and that, on the present occasion, besides allowing all the due share of praise to the immediate subject of his memoir, he takes occasion to render justice to *Scheele*, Priestley, and others, who, about the same period, were engaged in the same train of pursuits.

The first *Memoir* in this department is by M. RICHARD, *On the Hydrocharides; i. e. on the Plants which, with the Hydrocharis, constitute the natural Family of this Name.* Our readers must be aware of the fondness which the French botanists manifest for the plan of forming natural families; a plan which, if cautiously pursued, is well calculated to promote botanical science, but which, on many occasions, they have certainly carried to an unreasonable extent. We will not decide whether this remark applies to the case now before us: but we are disposed to think that, although the plants placed together, as forming one natural division, have some common points of resemblance, they are very dissimilar in many essential parts. The essay is extremely elaborate, being extended through 88 4to. pages; and indeed it seems to contain every thing essential to the complete investigation of the subject. The plants which are classed under the title of the Hydrocharides are the *Elodea Guyannensis*, which is little known, and which grows in Guiana, as its specific name imports; the *Anacharis Callitrichoides*, which was discovered by *Commerson*, near Monte Video; *Hydrilla ovalifolia*, an Indian plant described by Roxburgh; *Vallisneria spiralis*, an European diœcious plant; *Blyxa Auberti*, also a diœcious plant, discovered by M. *Aubert du Petit Thouars*, at Madagascar; *Blyxa Roxburgi*, a native of Coromandel; *Stratiotes aloides*, a well-known European plant; *Ottelia Alismoides*, an inhabitant of the Nile, near Rosetta, and perhaps also of India; *Limnobium Bosci*, a native of South Carolina, where it was discovered by M. *Bosc*, after whom it is named; and, lastly, the *Hydrocharis Morsus-Ranæ*, a common and well known inhabitant of various parts of Europe, which on this account gives its name to the whole family. After a minute scientific description of each of these plants individually, the author makes some observations on the family generally, their habits, their different parts, and their various organs. The characters are given in Latin, arranged into orders and genera; and a conspectus of the whole is added, together with a series of engravings. To the memoir is subjoined a description, with a figure, of the plant generally known in medicine under the title of *Angustura*, but now named *Bonplandia*.

The next paper is a *Continuation of* M. GUYTON-MORVEAU's *Essay on Pyrometry*; the principal object of which is

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to make a correct estimate of the real value of Wedgwood's table of temperatures, as taken from his experiments with the clay-thermometer. The author conceives it to be an instrument of considerable merit, but he thinks that the values assigned by Mr. Wedgwood himself are extremely erroneous. 'It will not be seen without surprize,' he observes, 'that the 1077th degree of the thermometer of Fahrenheit, which, according to Wedgwood, answers to the zero of his own pyrometer, is found here replaced by 517°; and that the value of 130° of Fahrenheit, which he has assigned to each of the divisions of his pyrometric-gage, are here reduced to 62½°; which, admitting an uniform progression in the highest temperatures, does not carry the temperature of melted iron, for example, to more than 8696° of Fahrenheit, instead of 17327, and consequently to 4609° of the centigrade thermometer, instead of 9606°.' This error appears to have originated in Mr. Wedgwood having formed a wrong estimate of the melting point of silver, which he made one of the principal data for connecting his scale with that of the mercurial thermometer. In rectifying the temperatures of that gentleman's pyrometer, and comparing them with those of the mercurial scale, the present author employs as an intermedium the pyrometer of platina; and, in order to connect this with the two points of the freezing and boiling of water, (which are the points on the mercurial scale that are the best established, and to which the rest are generally referred,) he employs some more dilatable metals; as also the vegetable oils, the boiling point of which is so much higher than that of water. — The paper, generally speaking, seems to us of considerable value, and to deserve the attentive examination of those who are interested in ascertaining with accuracy the higher degrees of temperature. It is accompanied by some tables containing the numbers that result from the writer's experiments.

Observations on the Arrangement and Disposition of Leaves, on the Medulla of Ligneous Vegetables, and on the Conversion of the Cortical Strata into Wood. By M. Palisot, *Baron de* Beauvois. – The author enters very fully into this subject, and considers every part of it with minuteness. With respect to the medulla, he inquires into 'the nature of its substance; the form of its mass, or that of the case in which it is inclosed; the changes which it experiences; and lastly its use.' All these points form the topics of so many separate sections, in which he examines the opinions of *Malpighi*, *Hales*, *Grew*, *Duhamel*, and other preceding writers, and afterward gives his own ideas concerning them. As the use of the medulla has been much controverted, we shall quote the present observations on it: 'If we cannot conclude that the medulla is an organ necessary to the increase and developement of vegetables, — that it has always a real use, viz. as *Grew* advanced, direct and immediate in the first year, and as long as the medullary canal is charged with fluid and remains succulent, —it appears at least probable that it has an indirect and mediate action when, being grown dry, without strength and power, it cannot act but by the intervention of its radii, which communicate directly with it, and are a continuation of it.' With respect to the action of these radii, it is supposed that they are connected with the leaves or young branches of the stem; so that, according to its shape and number of projecting parts, the branches grow out in pairs, or in some other number, radiating from one part. Of these forms there are said to be five; triangular, when the leaves grow out three together; tetragonal, when the leaves grow in sets of four; pentagonal, when they are disposed in sets of five; and round or oval, when the leaves are placed in pairs. With respect to the conversion of the cortical strata into new wood, the author remarks that one point which he has established is to *demonstrate* that the opinion of *Malpighi*, *Grew*, and *Duhamel* is correct, 'that the new woody strata are produced by the liber, and not, according to the opinion of *Hales*, from the previously formed wood,' or, as it is termed, alburnum.

In a second memoir, M. PALISOT brings forwards additional proof of his opinion respecting the arrangement of the leaves; and he observes 'that, in all the plants with whorled leaves, the form of the medullary sheath is always in harmony with the number, arrangement, and disposition of the branches.'—These memoirs are accompanied by some illustrative plates.

Vol. XIII. for 1812.* — MATHEMATICS AND ASTRONOMY.

The historical part, by M. DELAMBRE (as usual,) begins with an account of the memoir of M. *Legendre* on the attraction of Homogeneous Spheroids, to which he was led in consequence of the simplification that Mr. Ivory had given to this kind of investigation. The Secretary next examines, in some detail, the memoir of M. *Poisson* which we have noticed in a preceding page (527.); he then gives a slight sketch of seven different papers by M. *Rochon*; adverts to the lunar tables of M. *Burckhardt*; passes in review several works, among which are *Laplace*'s Analytical Theory of Probabilities, *Carnot* on the Defence of fortified Places, and other new editions of old works; and with these he concludes the historical preliminary.

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* In the second part of this volume, the epithet *Imperial*, before given to the Institute, is omitted, and no other substituted.

In the succeeding article, the Secretary supplies notices of the lives of *Malus* and *Lagrange*; of the latter of whom we have already spoken in our report of his *Mécanique Analytique*, and respecting the former we shall merely transcribe one sentence: 'Newton, speaking of a young friend whom he had lost, said, "If Cotes had lived, we should have known something:" and we may, in like manner, say, If *Malus* had lived, he would have completed the theory of light.' This celebrated philosopher, whose name will be transmitted to the end of time in consequence of his discovery of the polarization of light, died on the 24th of February 1812, in the 37th year of his age, and was replaced in the Institute by M. *Poisson*; who is well worthy to succeed him.

(Part I.) MEMOIRS. — *On a new Kind of Oscillation which the Particles of Light experience in traversing certain Crystals.* By M. BIOT.

(Part II.) *On a new Application of the Theory of the Oscillations of Light.* By the Same.

On the Discovery of a new Property in the polarizing Forces of certain Crystals. By the Same.

On the Physical Properties that the Particles of Light acquire in traversing double refracting Crystals. By the Same.

These memoirs occupy more than 400 pages, and are crowded with numerous experiments and ingenious deductions; which, as we have before remarked in reference to this author's paper in the preceding volume, bid defiance to any intelligible condensation. We must consequently pass over them with the mere enumeration of their titles.

Result of the Meteorological Observations made at Clermont-Ferrand, from the Month of June 1806, to the End of 1813. By the Baron RAMOND. — On examining the dates in the title to this memoir and the title of the volume itself, it will be found that the article which is here said to be inserted in the volume for 1812 was not written, and the experiments which it details were not finished, till 1813; that it was not read till 1814; and that it was not published till 1816. We cannot but remark the impropriety of thus giving an apparent earlier date to papers than the period at which they were written. Let us imagine such a case as the invention of fluxions by an Englishman in 1813, which is mentioned to a few friends, and arrives by some means at Paris in 1814; let us farther imagine a foreigner so lost to all sense of honour as to appropriate to himself that which he knows, and he almost exclusively, to belong to another; of which we will suppose him to present an account to the Institute in the latter end of this year; and the memoir to be then pub-

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lished in the volume for 1812. Some years afterward, a dispute shall arise concerning priority of invention; the Englishman, and his friends, trace the date of the discovery to the year 1813; while the Frenchman, and his friends, prove that it was published in the volume of their Institute for 1812, and consequently that the latter has a priority of claim. We beg most positively to state that, in putting the above case, we by no means intend to imply the *probability* of such a transaction, but merely to shew the *possibility* of it, and thence to manifest the impropriety of the practice in question.—With regard to the memoir which has given rise to this remark, we must observe that it appears to contain very correct meteorological tables and observations; which, however, would furnish no useful information in a detached form.

On Elastic Surfaces. By M. POISSON.—This is perhaps one of the most difficult problems in mechanics. The labours of the mathematicians of the last century had *apparently* given to this doctrine all the extension, and every degree of perfection, of which it seemed possible: but this was far from being the case; and many problems still remain to exercise the talents and humble the pride of philosophers, among which the subject of the present article is not one of the least important. The differential equations of these surfaces in equilibrium, and *à fortiori* those of their motion, are not yet known; except in the particular instance of a cylindrical surface, which returns to the simple case of an elastic lamina. *James Bernouilli* was the first who gave the equation of the equilibrium of an elastic lamina; founding it on the hypothesis that the elasticity at every point is a force perpendicular to the curve, of which the moment is proportional to the angle of deflection, or in the inverse ratio of the radius of curvature at that point. Since this great geometer, many others, and principally *Euler* and *D. Bernouilli*, have published several memoirs relative to the conditions of the equilibrium of elastic lines, and on the laws of their vibration: but nothing in any respect satisfactory has yet been effected with regard to elastic planes; and even the present memoir, though bearing strong traces of the very powerful genius of the author, appears still to leave much to be desired in the solution of this delicate problem.

(Part II.) PHYSICS.

In the history of this class by M. CUVIER, the learned Secretary commences by noticing the well known experiments of Count *Rumford*, on the proportional quantities of Heat extricated during the combustion of various bodies, and makes the following judicious observation concerning them: 'It is very remarkable that, admitting the correctness of the analyses of these substances by *Lavoisier*, *Cruickshank*, the *Saussures*, *Gay-Lussac*, and *Thénard*, and calculating the heat which would have been produced by the hydrogen and the carbon which enter into their composition, if they had been burned separately, we arrive at nearly the same results.'

The Institute had proposed as a prize-question, in the preceding year, to ascertain the capacity for heat of oxygen, hydrogen, and carbonic acid; and the prize was decreed to MM. *De la Roche* and *Berard*, who made a very ample train of experiments on the subject, and determined the capacity not only of the gaseous bodies mentioned above, but also of atmospherical air, azote, gaseous oxyd of azote, olefiant gas, gaseous oxyd of carbon, and aqueous vapour. M. Cuvier remarks on the experiments that they are favourable to *Berthollet's* theory of the nature of chemical attraction; and he afterward gives an account of the analyses that have been made of the olefiant and other carbonated hydrogen gases by Dalton, with the contrary results obtained by *Berthollet*. We have then a notice of *Thénard's* experiments on Ammoniac; of those of *Proust* on Metallic Oxyd; and of those of *De la Roche* on Animal Heat. Many of the experiments and observations mentioned in this part of the report are sufficiently important in themselves, but again we must say that they have lost a great part of their interest in consequence of the length of time that has elapsed since they were made public.

Various notices also occur of different facts that have been reported on topics connected with Natural History and Vegetable Physiology: but none of them are of so prominent a nature as to require to be particularized in this place. Under the head of Physiology, is announced an apparently important work on the comparative anatomy of the Organs of Respiration, by M. *Tiedeman*, Professor at Landshut; in which he has described them in the class of animals that have been called the echinodermata, comprehending the asteriæ and other analogous genera. Among other curious circumstances in the organization of these animals, he has observed 'a species of circulation between their organs of digestion and those of respiration; without, however, forming a complete double circle; and we cannot follow the branches into the external organs, nor into those of motion. It even appears that a distinct vascular system is distributed to the numerous peduncles which, in these animals, serve as instruments of loco-motion.' The organs of respiration are said to differ much in the various genera; in some they represent hollow trees, the branches of which fill themselves with or eject the external water, and are interlaced with a vascular net-work; in others, the water penetrates immediately into the cavity of the body, and bathes all its parts.

In the notice of a work by M. *Lamouroux* on the Corallines, the reporter states that he has himself presented to the class a tabular view of the divisions into which he proposes to arrange the subjects of natural history in his great work on Comparative Anatomy. His primary divisions are four; animals with vertebræ, the mollusca, articulated animals, and radiated animals or zoophytes; and he says that he finds this division to afford great facility in reducing the diversities of organization under general rules. — We are informed that M. *Jacobsen*, a Danish army-surgeon, has discovered a peculiar appendage to the Nostrils of Quadrupeds, which does not exist in man, and is more developed in the herbivorous than in the carnivorous animals. He conjectures that it is the seat of a sense by which they reject venomous substances, distinguish sex, &c.; and this he conceives to be nothing more than a modification of smell. — MM. *Lacépède*, *Geoffroy Saint Hilaire*, and *Cuvier*, have made some important observations on the different species of the Cetaceæ; and M. *De la Billardiere* has added new facts to our knowlege of the natural history of the Bee. — Some experiments by M. *de Montègre*, on the Gastric Juice, seem to shew that it is entirely similar to saliva.

Under the head of Medicine, is an account of a work on Chronic Diseases by M. *Dumas*; in which he endeavours to draw up a few simple principles, that may apply to the general doctrines of those affections: but, from the report of them, we can scarcely ascribe much success to the attempt.

The first of the *Memoirs* on physical subjects in Part II. is by M. PALISOT DE BEAUVOIS, *on the Plants of the Family of the Cypereæ.* This family, so named from their resemblance to the Cyperus, is of considerable extent, including the Schœnus, Scirpus, Carex, and some other large genera; and it is remarkable for having the number of the stigmata equal to that of the angles of the seed: a circumstance which is said to depend on an original difference in the organization of the plant, and thus to afford a natural character from which we may deduce our principles of arrangement.

We next come to a very elaborate paper *on Iodine*, by M. GAY-LUSSAC; which, when it was read, must no doubt have been extremely interesting: but now, after an interval of nearly four years, it has lost much of its claims on our attention, the information which it contains being generally known among the chemists of this country; and therefore all that remains for us is to give a brief view of the manner in which M. GAY-LUSSAC treats the subject. He begins with an account of the properties of iodine, and then proceeds to its combination with simple bodies; especially those processes in which the iodine is made to unite with hydrogen so as to form the hydriodic acid, according to one hypothesis, or, according to the other, loses a part of its oxygen. We are next furnished wlth a description of many of the iodurets, and of the action of iodine on various oxyds, which leads to an account of the iodic acid and its compounds, particularly with chlorine; and then we have a view of the hydriodates, given much in detail, and with every appearance of great accuracy. Some remarks on chlorine follow, especially as being a body in many respects analogous to iodine. We quote a paragraph towards the conclusion, referring to the hypothesis which has given rise to so much discussion:

> ' From the analogies which I have established in this memoir, we shall be convinced that oxygen, chlorine, and iodine, do not form an insulated groupe to which the acidifying property exclusively belongs. We have seen that it also belongs to sulphur and to azote, and we may say that it appertains likewise to a number of other bodies. Nevertheless, oxygen will always be considered as the principal acidifying substance, not only by the energy of this property and by the numerous acids which it forms, but because we can employ as solvents only those fluids which, containing oxygen and hydrogen, can change the nature of the compounds which they dissolve. Although chlorine does not disengage oxygen from all its combinations, it appears to me that it ought to be placed before it, on account of the energy of its properties: but fluorine, which we have not yet been able to obtain in an insulated state, would without doubt be placed before chlorine, because it disengages oxygen from all its combinations. We owe to M. *Ampere* the first idea that the fluoric acid is analogous to the hydrochloric acid; that is to say, that it is composed of hydrogen and a particular body analogous to chlorine, which he had proposed to name fluorine. Mr. Davy, to whom he had imparted the theory which he had conceived, did not seek to verify it until a long time afterward, when M. *Ampere* had answered the objections which had been addressed to him.'

Exposition of the Facts collected up to the present Time on the Effects of Vaccination; and an Examination of the Objections that have been urged against it at different Periods, and which some Persons still allege against the Practice of it. By MM. BERTHOLLET, PERCY, and HALLÉ. — In this paper, which terminates the volume, the reporters observe with justice and candour that, notwithstanding the almost unanimous testimony of medical men and the public in general in favour of vaccination, some objections are still raised against it; and that, as these do not appear, at least in some cases, to originate in any unworthy motive, it is proper that they should be examined with impartiality. They mention five objections that are occasionally urged: but the only one of them that, in this country, is regarded as of the least moment, or has any effect on the public mind, is that vaccination leaves in the constitution a tendency to eruptive complaints of various kinds. The circumstances which attended the first employment of the vaccine matter by Dr. Woodville, at the Small-pox Hospital in London, where eruptions were produced in a great number of cases, may have been a cause for the opinion that they were a necessary consequence of the disease: but the source of the evil in this case is well known, and was very candidly acknowleged by Dr. Woodville. On this topic, generally, it is here remarked:

> 'From the comparison which we have made between the observations cited and the sum of the observations collected, relatively to the eruptions that have accompanied vaccination, we conclude that the cases in which these eruptions, as well as the febrile affections that have taken place, compared with the cases which are exempt from them, are in such a proportion that we cannot attribute these eruptions to the vaccine virus, nor regard them as a consequence of its properties; that they must be referred to accidental circumstances, either general or particular; that these circumstances, which cannot be always appretiated in many insulated individual cases, have in most of them, and especially in those in which the phænomena have shewn themselves at once in a great number of individuals, a relation to variolous emanations concentrated in those places in which the vaccination has been performed, or with the contagion of the epidemic small-pox; that, consequently, they do not prove in any way that the vaccine virus carries into the body a ferment which ought to be expelled by a febrile commotion, and by a particular eruption, or by any other remarkable evacuation; and that we have a right to draw directly the contrary conclusion from the number of cases in which the vaccine matter inserted has not produced any sensible change, except in the very place of the insertion, and has not given occasion to any durable febrile commotion, or to any appretiable inconvenience.'

The objection which, we think, has had the most influence in this country is not noticed in the Report; viz. that the vaccine inoculation, although it may be a complete preservative against the small-pox when it is first performed, loses this preservative power after some time. Our readers must be well aware that this allegation has been made by some professional men, and with a certain degree of plausibility; and at one time it appeared to be gaining ground even among persons of reflection: but we apprehend that it is now maintained by few individuals, except among the vulgar, and even with them we think its influence is not very extensive.

We transcribe the concluding paragraph, in order to manifest the agreement of sentiment which exists on this important subject, between the medical men of England and those of France:

'The preservative effect of the vaccine virus, when this virus has been taken in those determinate circumstances which assure us of its purity, and when the developement of it has been complete, is at least as certain as that of the small-pox itself, or as that which results from the variolous inoculation. Moreover, considered with relation to society in general, vaccination has an advantage which inoculation cannot possess; that of putting a stop to variolous epidemics, circumscribing them, and causing them to disappear; and of considerably diminishing the mortality which threatens the early periods of life, thus preserving to population its most advantageous proportion. In short, the results obtained up to this time inspire us with the probable hope of seeing the scourge of the small-pox, one of the most deplorable under which human nature suffers, disappear from the bosom of society.'

We cannot conclude without remarking that, as far as the physical papers in this and the former volume are concerned, they exhibit a great paucity of matter; and that, if they are to be assumed as any test of the state of general science in France, they would give an unfavourable picture of it. We have already animadverted on the great impropriety of antedating the volumes; and we can only conceive that such a plan was adopted in consequence of the impossibility of obtaining a sufficient stock of materials to form a volume during the course of each previous year.

Our attention will next be devoted to the two volumes which have commenced the publications of the *Royal* Institute; which term has now supplanted those of *National* and of *Imperial*, and has filled up the chasm already noted in the last part of the volume before us.

ART. X. *Exposition d'un nouveau Principe général de Dynamique,* &c.; *i. e.* An Exposition of a New General Principle of Dynamics. By the Count DE BUQUOY. Read at the Institute of France, August 28. 1815. 4to. pp. 30. Paris. Imported by De Boffe. Price 4s.

ALTHOUGH this is but a small publication, it undertakes to accomplish much; that is to say, it professes, within the limits of 30 pages, to give a general developement of dynamics, including statics and the principle of virtual velocities as particular cases. The author observes:

'The general principle of dynamics developed here, of which I have already treated, and which I have applied to different examples of analytical mechanics, in two little German works intitled "*Analytische Bestimmung des Gesetezes der virtuellen Geschwindigkeiten*," &c. and "*Weitere Entwickelung und Anwendung des Gesetzes der virtuellen Geschwindigkeiten*," &c. is sufficient of itself to resolve all the questions of dynamics and statics; without its being necessary previously to consider whether the problem belongs to dynamics or statics, or to employ in the two cases two different principles. Under the point of view in which dynamics is here developed, *statics forms not a separate part*; the static state being only a particular case of dynamics in general, of which cases we may imagine an infinite number. This principle of dynamics rests on none of the principles of mechanics or statics at present known.'

This new theory is made to depend on the following considerations; viz. suppose a system of bodies, b, b′, b″, &c., to which are applied divers individual dynamic impulsions, i, i′, i″, &c.; and let us farther suppose '*that these points of application are so arranged that the space run over by one of them shall decide the space run over by all the others* (*as well in direction as in distance*),' then the combined motion of the system may be considered by merely contemplating that of an individual point. Such a *new* principle of mechanics is something like the *old* principle of catching birds by laying salt on their tails; — at least, the practicability appears to us to be nearly the same in both cases.

ART. XI. *Des Juifs au dix-neuvième Siècle; &c.*; *i. e.* On the Jews of the Nineteenth Century, or Considerations on their Civil and political State in Europe; followed by a Biographical Notice of those Antient and Modern Jews who have distinguished themselves in the Sciences and Arts. By M. BAIL, formerly Inspector of Reviews, and Member of the Legion of Honour. Second Edition, revised and corrected by the Author. 8vo. pp. 148. Paris. 1816.

THE situation of the Jews has in the present age excited considerable attention; various attempts having been made by benevolent individuals to convert them to Christianity, and to lessen the existing prejudices against their name and character. *Bonaparte* chose to take up the subject about twelve years ago with more than common warmth; in the hope, no doubt, of making this oppressed race useful in his military schemes, particularly in his views on Poland. Influenced by different motives, M. BAIL, without belonging to the Hebrew nation, now comes forwards as their zealous advocate; dwelling with great emphasis on the persecutions which they endured in former times, as well as on the humiliations to which they are yet exposed; and calling on neighbouring countries to observe the moral improvement attending the amendment of their political condition in France. His book contains a slight sketch of their history, and more particularly of the different regulations adopted with regard to them during the last thirty years in different parts of Europe. Like other ardent writers, he considers arrangement as wholly a subordinate point, and deals out his information indiscriminately in the text and notes, quoting authorities in abundance, but discovering little of that patient and pains-taking industry which leads to the deduction of useful conclusions. He begins by offering the following as a fair calculation of the number of Jews in the different quarters of the globe.

In all parts of Poland, before the partition of 1772 - - -	1,000,000 souls.
In Russia, including Moldavia and Walachia, - - -	200,000
In all the States in which the German language is spoken, - - -	500,000
In Holland and the Netherlands, -	80,000
In Sweden and Denmark, - -	5,000
In France, - - - -	50,000
In England, - - - -	50,000
(Of which London contains 12,000.)	
In the States in which Italian is spoken,	200,000
In Spain and Portugal, - - -	10,000
In the United States, - - -	3,000
In the Mohammedan States of Asia, Europe, and Africa, - -	4,000,000
In Persia and the rest of Asia, including China and India, - - -	500,000
Total,	6,598,000

This estimate far exceeds the number of their ancestors in former days, when united under a government of their own; yet the calculation is comparatively moderate, since other writers do not hesitate to give these universal wanderers a total number of twelve or thirteen millions.

We have in one passage (p. 59.) a short account of the principal sects among the Jews: but the most useful parts of the tract are those in which the author asserts the practicability of rendering them honest and useful members of the community; their bad reputation hitherto being by no means the consequence of an inherent tendency to fraud, but of the degradation in which they have been kept in almost every country. By an unlucky coincidence, the Turks rival us in the ingenuity and pertinacity of their mode of oppressing them, it being a common saying that at Constantinople "a Jew pays both for being born and for being carried to the grave;" and it is a curious fact that, under the feudal system, the Jews were not only subjected to enormous taxes but passed by the name of *serfs main-mortables*, their bequeathed property belonging to the baron on whose land they lived, and who deemed himself as much the proprietor of his Jews as of his own furniture.

The chief relief in this picture of gloom is derived from the improved condition of the Jews in France; where their number amounts to 50,000, of whom some live at Bourdeaux, others at Paris, but the greater proportion in Alsace. M. BAIL recommends (p. 90.) that the attention of the French legislature should be given to their education, and that a plan should be laid down for preparing them to become admissible to places of trust and respectability: — at present, indeed, the law intitles them to such promotion, but their own habits and the prepossessions of the public are adverse to it. — A German writer asserts that, of twelve offences brought under the cognizance of the courts of justice at Leipsic, eleven are generally committed by Jews: but, granting this for the sake of argument, nothing can better shew the different operations of a free and a degraded condition; since in France they are free, and we hear nothing, says M. BAIL, of these irregularities.

The Jews fixed themselves in Alsace about four centuries ago; and their colony, which was limited at first to a very small number, now amounts to nearly 17,000. Poland, however, is their grand receptacle: at Warsaw, Cracow, and Lemberg, all business may be said to pass through their hands; and without them the poor and ignorant Poles would be long in finding a market for their surplus-produce. At Copenhagen, measures have been taken, within these thirty years, to improve their education, and accustom them to regular industry; and similar advantages are enjoyed by them in the Netherlands, where in fact they have long formed a very active and useful part of the community.

It is often a subject of complaint that the Jews do not attach themselves to husbandry; and some writers have proposed to make over to them portions of extensive commons, on condition that they shall not sell or alienate them, but shall perform the cultivation with their own hands: while others have suggested the establishment of petty colonies in uncultivated districts: but all these schemes are liable to the ordinary objections against any interference with the natural course of things. Such calculations are beyond the depth of a military man, and M. BAIL deserves our attention more for the benevolence of his motives than for the ingenuity of his observations.

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